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THE POLITICAL PHILOSOPHY OF ARISTOTLE.

In current criticism an eminent man of thought or action is termed eminently sane, if it is intended to mark him off from other men of his class. By sanity we mean substantially what the average man means by common sense; it is the capacity to apprehend things as they are without recourse to the refinements of metaphysical subtleties against which the positivists and the inductive school generally have led a wholesome reaction. Aristotle was the first of the positivists, the first of the scientists, the first Baconian.

The cry, "Back to Aristotle," stands for a more correct method; and there is some promise now that students of political science will also follow the path of patient investigation and rigorous analysis.\* The rise of the historical method and the gradual development of history into a science, promises to work out the redemption of political philosophy from the gratuitous assumptions into which it was carried by the metaphysics of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Two signs of the times may be taken

\* The need of a better method and of a wider scope is well urged by Professor Leo S. Rowe, in his study of "The Problems of Political Science," in the *ANNALS*, Vol. x, p. 165, September, 1897.

as an earnest of this return to a more sober thinking: first, the absence of any present writing of note which attempts to formulate into a system the older political philosophy; and second, the earnest effort made in all of the civilized countries of the world to secure a larger conception of the social relations and a deeper insight into the functions of the state as a constituted guardian of the welfare of the individual man, a constituted guardian which, while it is not primarily a finder or provider, does yet powerfully aid individual man both directly and positively in realizing himself, that is, in attaining his ends.

A return to Aristotle stands also for a wider conception of the state. Underlying much of our current individualism is a belief in an abstract individual, an utter neglect of the real individual. Man is a political, *i. e.*, a social animal. The individual apart from all relations to a community is a negation, a logical ghost, a metaphysical spectre. Over against the individual we are wont to set the state; a point of view to be sure which we can take; but the antithesis between the state and the individual is only a partial truth, and a partial truth when taken for the whole truth becomes a falsehood. Similarly there is an assumed antithesis between the state and society which has been much overworked. The antithesis has doubtless a subjective value; it has become a common-place of German writers on public law and ethics, and it may aid in clearness of thinking at certain points, but it is doubtful whether it has any historical reality.\*

I do not object to the wide conception of society that is commonly entertained but to the too narrow conception of the state. The state is society in its best form. The state is the only form of society possessing sovereign authority, individuality, independence, and self-direction; it is the authoritative and positive form of society; the state

\* Cf. J. S. Mann quoted by Ritchie, "Principles of State Interference," Appendix, Note A.



considered as a government is an organ, but the state considered as a society is by metaphor an organism. Admirably and with a scientific fidelity, that the student of law will appreciate more justly than the student of history, Aristotle defines the state, the city-state it was in his day, as "that association of men which is the highest of all associations and includes all." I know that in this contention for a wider concept of the state I am placing myself outside of the list of eminent authorities in modern political philosophy. But as Mr. Ritchie observes, in his criticism of Herbert Spencer's "*Man vs. the State*," there are some things that demand more respect than distinguished persons—philosophy itself. Further studies, like that of Dr. Willoughby, may reclaim part of the ground which some are too readily abandoning to the sociologists.

When Aristotle said, "Man is a political animal," he meant something quite different from what those words mean to us. We get his meaning more accurately if we translate him into our language: Man is a social animal. This antithesis between the state and society he practically ignores. Plato, however, ignores it more emphatically. Aristotle seems at times to have some intimation of it, but when he comes to work out his theory of the best state as distinguished from the best constitution, he gives most of his attention to what we are wont to call economic and social questions. Likewise in our own day the burning questions in politics are almost the exact opposite of those which our literary political philosophers are wont to hold up as the true data for the construction of political science. Those questions which it is common for them to say have no place in politics, questions of a social and economic character, are in the very foreground of political discussion, and if they do not form an integral part of politics proper, they must yet have their recognition by the statesman who confronts them in his career. Adam Smith and his forerunners confounded economics with politics and gave birth to a hybrid which,

until recently, their successors have uniformly called political economy, while on the other hand Aristotle confounded politics with economics by giving attention to a variety of topics which a modern scholar would rule out of politics. Auguste Comte, was correct when he declared that Aristotle in his "Politics," Montesquieu in his "Spirit of Laws," Condorcet in his "Sketch of the Progress of the Human Spirit in History" and economists pre-Smithian and post-Smithian, have each and all alike attempted to construct a philosophy of society which to Aristotle was the state, and which, to most moderns, is in antithesis to the state. The question respecting the various fields to be occupied by the several so-called political or social sciences seems to me should be held to be still an open one. When their complete differentiation shall have been established, and when the day of their maturity shall have come, we shall understand their subordinate no less than their co-ordinate relations; their synthesis no less than their analysis.

Two observations by Aristotle, respecting the study of political science or the art political, require our notice: the one respecting the student,\* the other respecting the teacher† of political science. He intimates that to be ready for the study of the art political a man should have a wide experience and a general acquaintance with affairs. He suggests that he is best prepared for the study of the art political whose education on all matters has been universal.

"And hence it is," he adds, "that a young man is not a fit student for the art political, for he has had no experience in matters of daily life, with which matters our premises are concerned, and of which our conclusions treat . . . And this is true of him who is young in character equally with him who is young in years."‡

The other difficulty lies with the teacher or the teaching of political science. In connection with the discussion of the best education, he inquires:

\* "Nicomachean Ethics," Bk. I.

† *Ibid.*, Bk. X.

‡ *Ibid.*, Bk. I. (Williams' translation, p. 3).

"But from whom can we learn political science? To this the right answer would seem to be that we must learn it from politicians. But then," he proceeds, "we must remember that there is a clear difference between political science and all the other sciences and arts whatsoever. For in all the other sciences, as in medicine, for instance, and in painting, we find that the same persons both teach the general theory of the science and also practice it as a profession."

In the case of political science, although the sophists profess to teach it in theory, yet no one of them is actually engaged in its practice—politics as a profession being in the hands of statesmen, and it would seem that statesmen are not guided in their practice by any knowledge of scientific principles,

"but rather that they have some special aptitude for the subject, combined with a knowledge of certain empiric rules."

Furthermore

"it would seem that those who desire a thorough knowledge of political philosophy need some acquaintance with the actual practice of states. As for those among the sophists who profess political philosophy, the last thing that one would say of them would be that they teach that which they profess. As a matter of fact they have not the least knowledge either as to what the science is or with what it is concerned. Else they would never have identified it with rhetoric."\*

It is from a sense of their fitness and importance, and because they give so admirably the Aristotelian point of view, that I have permitted myself to make these extracts from the "*Nichomachean Ethics*." For in these paragraphs we have the introduction to "*The Politics*."

In the last paragraph of "*The Ethics*" Aristotle promises to enter upon a consideration of political science himself in order that we may "complete, as far as in us lies, that branch of philosophy, the object of which is man." And he submits the following program:

"We will first attempt to examine in detail all such particular statements of our predecessors as may commend themselves. And we will

\* *Ibid.*, Bk. x (Williams' translation, pp. 325-26).

then proceed to frame a collection of constitutions, and to derive therefrom certain rules as to what are the causes by which a state is preserved, and what are the causes by which it is destroyed; and further, to determine what modifications must be made in these rules, so that they may be applicable to each particular form of constitution. We will then consider for what reasons it is that some governments are successful and others not. . . . We shall then be in a better position to determine, not only what is the absolutely best form of government, but also in what manner each particular form of government must be ordered, and of what laws and what customs it must make use. Here then we leave the ethics and begin the politics."

Sir Frederick Pollock places two great achievements to the credit of Aristotle: first, that he separated politics from ethics; and, second, that he adopts a correct method. Of the first of these it must be said that Aristotle does not carry the separation of ethics and politics as far as some modern scholars do; he regards ethics as "in a sense a political inquiry."\* Aristotle constantly reckons with the ethical element in his discussion of politics, and he does this without losing his bearings; he does not cease to treat of the state, if he reckons at times with questions of character and conduct, with purpose and motive. His method is historical, critical and constructive, and is fairly indicated in the paragraph above which we called his program. His complete neglect of artistic form, and his adherence to "essential naked truth," induced Wilhelm von Humboldt† to say that he was un-Greek.

"The Politics," which in ordinary book form covers something over two hundred pages, has come to stand in certain generally accepted divisions and subdivisions, known as books, chapters and paragraphs; ‡ and while no rigorous lines mark the eight books off from each other, each has

\* See "Nichomachean Ethics," introductory chapter of Book i (Welldon's translation, p. 3).

† In a letter to F. A. Wolf, dated January 15, 1795, "Works," Vol. v, p. 125.

‡ The references to the text of "The Politics" in the foot-notes which follow are to Jowett's translation. The translations of the Greek text are, however, not always in the words of Jowett. In a few instances the writer has adopted the rendering of other students and occasionally he has ventured a translation of his own.

essentially one leading topic which may serve to state its title. These I summarize as follows: first, the origin of the state and the elements of political and social economy; second, the study of constitutions ideal and real, or political history and the history of political literature; third, the ideal constitution; fourth, the forms of government; fifth, political revolutions, or the permanence of governments; sixth, two of the forms further considered, democracy and oligarchy, and administrative machinery; seventh, the conditions of the state, or the ideal state; eighth, education. Now these eight books may be more logically grouped under four or five heads. Leaving the first two as they stand, merging the fourth and fifth and part of the sixth with the third, and dividing the remaining three into two, placing the seventh by itself, and a part of the sixth with the eighth, we should have five parts. This rearrangement would place the several divisions more in harmony with what is now the customary rubric for the discussion of the several topics. Thus arranged the order of topics would be: first, the origin of the state and the elements of political and social economy; second, political history and the history of political literature; third, government more narrowly, constitutional law with some attempts to state a political theory; fourth, the ideal state, dealing with the life of the state behind the constitution, itself conditioning the constitution; fifth, administration, of which the chief subjects treated are administrative agencies at the end of book sixth and education in the eighth book. The first of these parts corresponds to what the sociologists are recently claiming as their special province. The second and third of these parts constitute the body of the work and deal primarily with the government of states. The fourth part, answering to the seventh book, is perhaps the portion of "The Politics" least understood. The fifth part, considered as a discussion of administration, is very incomplete. Our further discussion we will group under these five headings.

I. The Origin of the State and the Elements of Political and Social Economy. The definition of the state Aristotle formulates substantially as follows: the state is that association (*κοινωνία*) which is the highest of all associations, and includes all, and aims at the highest good.\* Human society can be resolved into two ultimate elements, the sexual relation and private property. Upon these two relations the state is founded. The first is necessary for the continuance of the race, and both the family and property are necessary for its welfare. Hence two preliminary sciences detain us in our investigations of the organization of government, namely: the science of the household, family, the science of association or social relations, shall we say sociology; and the science of property, of wealth and wealth-getting (*chrematistic*). In the language of our day general sociology must precede the study of politics. Each of these two subjects are then sketched in outline with an admirable insight. We are promised a treatment of the household under these headings: the master and slave, husband and wife, parent and child—titles which to a law student suggest a chapter in law, but are meant by Aristotle to outline the fundamental human association, the fundamental social unit, the family as the ancients knew it. The treatment of this subject stops with the first topic, and we are left, as so many times we are left in reading "The Politics," with unfulfilled expectations.

In the *chrematistic*, as he calls the second of these preliminary sciences, Aristotle discusses the production of goods, the organization of exchange, and the proper views that should be held respecting wealth. The distribution of wealth is indirectly treated with exchange, and consumption is discussed exclusively from the ethical point of view. In husbandry (agriculture) household management and *chrematistic* overlap.

The origin of the state is accounted for as the fusion of villages, which are themselves a fusion of households; and

\* Bk. i, Cap. i, § 1.



the progressive and advancing group is in each instance associated with a wider organization of property. The initial association is the household, and it exists to meet the immediate wants of the day; its members are "sharers of the meal bin." The second step in the series is an aggregation of the household, which is the village, the village community. The third step is an aggregation of villages, which is the city, the city-state. The fourth step has been taken since the time of Aristotle, the aggregation of city-states into the territorial state.\*

In the first book of "The Politics" appears a description of the patriarchal family as archetype of the state which Sir Henry Maine himself could never have excelled:

"Our city-states were originally governed by kings, as also are barbarian tribes to this day; for they were an aggregate of units governed by kings. For every household is governed by its oldest member as by a king, and thus the offshoots (*ἀποικία*) were similarly governed through the sympathy of kinship. And this is what Homer means: 'Each man is the oracle of law to his children and to his wives.' . . . This is the reason why men say that the gods are governed by a king, for men themselves are either still subject to a king or were so in ancient times." †

As the lesser groups are natural, argues Aristotle, so is the largest and all-inclusive one, for it is the end of the lesser in as much as "the completed nature is the end." Hence it is evident that the state is one of nature's productions, and that man is by nature a social animal, a city animal (*πολιτικὸν ζῷον*), and that the man who is without a country (*ἄπολις*) by nature and not by mere accident is

\* Professor Burgess, "Political Science and History," *American Historical Review*, April, 1897, p. 403, says aptly: "The Roman *imperium* inaugurated the period of country states; and the period in which we live is the period of national country states." But another remark of Professor Burgess, in the same connection, that "etymologically the phrase [political science] means the science of municipal government," can not be taken as strictly accurate. It means *more*, etymologically, than the science of municipal government by just as much as the classical city-state was *more* than a municipality. The concept municipal government in our day is better defined by the term municipal administration.

† Bk. i, Cap. ii, § 6-8.

certainly either worse or better than man.\* The impulse toward association of some sort is natural to all men, but as Lester F. Ward might say, it needs psychic direction. The Greeks therefore ascribed a fundamental importance to the law-giver as organizer of society. "The first organizer (*νομοθέτης*) was the author of the greatest blessings." † Justice is political and its administration the very order of political association. ✓

7 II. Constitutions, Ideal and Real. Political history and the history of political literature would be a fitting description of the scope of the second book of "The Politics;" but the book can hardly bear so ambitious a title. Of the ideal constitutions, that is, those proposed in speculative political literature, he treats the opinions of three of his predecessors, Plato, Phaleas and Hippodamus, with considerable fullness. Hippodamus, who is praised for having invented the art of planning cities, was one of the first city engineers and practiced the art of laying out the streets into squares or blocks. Aristotle thinks it worth his while to inform us that he wore "flowing hair and expensive ornaments."

Quite unlike Plato, Aristotle determined to discard no institution like the family or property which was sanctioned by immemorial usage. Communism in the family relation would lead to a grotesque confusion; individual interest in the general welfare would be sacrificed, and society itself become impossible. Of community of property he speaks with more tolerance. He enumerates three kinds of communal property: common property of products with private property of land; common property of land with private property of products; or, thirdly, both land and product may be common. But none of these will answer as a system. Our present arrangement of private property if improved by good customs and good laws would be far better. Some of his maxims, old perhaps in his day, are as significant as ever:

\* Bk. i, Cap. ii, § 8-10.

† Bk. i, Cap. ii, § 15.

"Nothing is so well cared for as that which is cared for for oneself." "Of the two qualities which chiefly inspire regard and affection, that a thing is your own and that you love it, neither can exist in a communistic state."

Many evils are charged to private property for which it is not responsible. The real cause of existing evils is not private property but the wickedness of men. Rich men should be taught the pleasure of giving, and the virtues of liberality and temperance should be cultivated. Communism may be wisely applied to slaves and the lower classes in order to hold them in subjection, a view which the master class in slave-holding countries in our times have shared with Aristotle. After this review of Plato's "Republic," "The Laws" of Plato are examined, but not in the spirit of a generous critic. The following views of Aristotle appear from a summary of the criticism: that a state cannot exceed certain bounds; that the treatment of foreign relations is a constituent part of political science; that the doctrine of population must be discussed in a theory of the state; that a good constitution is made up of many elements, of balances and checks. For example, to illustrate the last view, he observes that the constitution proposed in "The Laws" has in it no element of monarchy, that it leans too hard to oligarchy in its electoral college.

Of real constitutions that of Sparta seems the favorite one, but others are cited. The criteria for testing a constitution are these: Is its end good? Are the laws consistent with this end? Is there a leisure class who can see to the conduct of the state? Only the last of these questions calls for discussion. That there should be a leisure class seems clear to Aristotle, but he regards the question of their support a perplexing one. But he apparently finds a solution in the existence of a slave class for the support of the governing class. The idea of supporting only a distinct and limited class of public servants does not appear to have been grasped by the thinkers of Aristotle's time, much less that this class

should be supported by an equitable and proportionate contribution of the members of the state. It is evident that public finance whether regarded as an art or a science was in its infancy. The constitutions of Sparta, Crete and Carthage are critically reviewed. All the political writers of antiquity were profoundly impressed by the Spartan constitution, but our critic could not view it with unqualified favor. There was perhaps a vein of humor in some of his strictures. The second book closed with a cursory and rambling mention of political writers and legislators. Not even the greatest of men can make a science out of nothing, and a perusal of this book of "The Politics" reveals in a measure the debt of Aristotle to his age.

III. Government. Broadly stated and in a modern spirit we should say that the subject of the third, fourth and fifth books and of a part of the sixth is government with an incidental discussion of the wider conception of the state. The central thought of the discussion is the constitution or constitutions (*πολιτείας*), whence politics.

1. Distinction between state and government. Aristotle had undoubtedly before him the distinction between state and government. The former appears constantly as the city (*πόλις*) while the latter is referred to variously as polity, constitution or rule (*πολιτεία, πολίτευμα, ἀρχή*). If we wish in the study of politics, he says in substance at the opening of the third book, to determine the various forms of government, our first step should be to consider the state (*πόλις*). For different views are taken of the state crediting now to the state what should be predicated of the government, that is, of the oligarchy or the despot it may be.

"Now the whole business of the statesman or legislator is, we see, concerned with the state; and the government of it or constitution is a particular organization of the men who live in the state." \*

In the third book Aristotle discusses the ideal constitution. In the seventh he discusses the ideal state. In the discus-

\*Bk. iii, Cap. i, §1.

sion of the ideal constitution, he asks who should have a share in the government and how should the government be organized and to what purpose; in the fourth and fifth books and in a part of the sixth, he considers the forms of government and their permanence. In the seventh book he inquires into the nature of the state as that lies back of the constitution, to use the forcible words of Burgess, he inquires into the conditions of the state and investigates problems of soil, climate, population, situation, and a host of problems which certain moderns rule out of political science because forsooth, the subject of their inquiry is not the state but the government.

2. Definition of citizenship. In accordance with his method before he proceeds with the study of the constitution he wants to know the elements out of which it is constituted and into which it may be resolved, and these he finds to be the citizens. But what is a citizen (*πολιτῆς*)? He sets himself to return an answer to this question with a gravity which shows that already in his day the literature on this topic was large and opinion divided. But his conclusion is definite. A citizen is one who shares in indefinite office, one who takes part in the government as *dicast* and *ecclesiast*, that is, as juror or assemblyman. Those who have the right of suffrage and can sit on juries would be a modern version of the Aristotelian test of citizenship. It is conceded that this test applies best to democracies, for in some form of governments the indefinite office practically disappears as the *demos* is not recognized at all where there are no regular assemblies or only called ones, and justice is administered by special boards. But it will still be true that the holder of the most general office will be a citizen; political status, in short, is an essential condition of citizenship according to Aristotle.

3. The identity of states. On his answer to the question which he raises respecting the identity of states modern politics has left him sharply behind. Whether a state is the

same or not the same he says depends on the *identity of constitutions*. That his answer is not satisfactory to himself appears from his hedging about the repudiation of contracts. His answer is all the more unsatisfactory because his distinction between state and government should have led him to a different view; but it is evident that in this respect he shared the weakness of certain distinguished modern writers who state clearly and emphasize broadly the distinction between the state and the government and then proceed to neglect at once the distinction drawn. For a clear answer to what constitutes the identity of states we are no doubt most indebted to the canons of international law, a service which, by the way, will not long stand by itself. The present tendency in literary political philosophy to abstract the state, will likewise have its permanent refutation from the imperative realities underlying our data for that branch of political science which deals with the relations of states to one another.

4. The relation of ethics to politics. Aristotle's conception of the relation of ethics to politics cannot be satisfactorily discussed in the few words which can be given here to the question which he so often asks: Is the virtue of a good citizen and of a good man the same? It does not appear that his answer is always the same. His answer in the main is undoubtedly an affirmative one, but there are phases of the question which evidently perplex him, and he attempts discriminations and distinctions. For example, in the fifth book, in urging high and specific qualifications for office, he remarks: In the choice of a general, we should regard his skill rather than his virtue; but in selecting a custodian of the public treasure we should follow the opposite rule.\*

5. The functions of government or the ends of the organized state. These are defence, the administration of justice including repressive justice, that is, police, and the general

\* Bk. v, Cap. ix, § 10.



welfare. The chief end of the state, that is, its latest or highest end is culture. In the words of Aristotle, "The state exists for the sake of living well." The state as the highest of human associations and including all others, is not only for the sake of life, but for the sake of good life.

"Man is by nature a political animal, that is a city animal, a social animal. And, therefore, men even when they do not require one another's help desire to live together, and are brought together by their common interest even in proportion as they attain to any measure of well-being." \*

"It is clear then that a state is not a mere society, having a common place, established for the prevention of crime and for the sake of exchange. These are conditions without which a state cannot exist; but all of them together do not constitute a state, which is a community of well-being in families and in aggregations of families called villages or communes, for the sake of a perfect and self-sufficing life." †

To what extent Aristotle believed in public expenditure for the common good, appears from what he has to say on virtue and public education. Like other Greeks he emphasizes with earnestness the æsthetic element in social culture.‡ All public works must, whenever practicable, be beautiful as well as useful.

6. The forms of government or the forms of the organized state. The form of the state is determined by its constitution, that is, by its form of government. Aristotle's enumeration of the forms of government is probably the most widely known part of the politics and is commonly taught in our elementary schools. Governments are classified as true or false according to their end, and they are: The true or normal forms—monarchy, aristocracy, polity; the false or abnormal forms—tyranny, oligarchy and democracy. The last false form has been described as ochlochraçy to distinguish it from polity which may be described as

\* Bk. iii, Cap. vi, § 3.

† Bk. iii., Cap. ix, § 12.

‡ In his "Theory of Social Forces," Cap. v, § 7. Professor Simon N. Patten calls attention to the importance of this factor in the promotion of the general welfare.

democracy in its best form. Aristotle comments *in extenso* on the relatively best form and on the natural fitness of the several forms for differing conditions and peoples; and his observations touching these important topics still rank easily among the best that has been thought and said by political philosophers of any time. One of the latest tributes by a competent critic to Aristotle for his thoroughgoing analysis of government is paid by Mr. Godkin in his recent essay on "Democratic Tendencies."\* Aristotle knew, too, that his three fundamental forms were, after all, but bold generalizations, and that each particular state was organized by a composition of all the elements, *e. g.*, the legislature might be aristocratic, the chief courts democratic, and the executive head a monarch. There is indeed some danger that in passing criticism upon particular doctrines of "The Politics" the critic will find himself engaged in an attack upon a legendary instead of a real Aristotle, for Aristotle may suffer at the hands of politicists much as Ricardo has suffered from economists who have never taken the time and the pains to read him carefully.

7. The relatively best form. Aristotle is profoundly attracted to democracy. He holds distinctly that supreme authority should ultimately rest with the many and not with the few, and he thus decides in favor of polity, his third form, as the absolutely best. The keynote of his constitutional theory is found in the following sentence: "The only stable principle of government is equality according to proportion (qualitative as distinguished from quantitative equality), and for every man to enjoy his own." We are left somewhat in doubt as to the meaning of equality according to proportion. The distinction corresponds to the arithmetical and geometrical ratios upon which justice is based in the "Nichomachean Ethics," and is practically incomprehensible at best by the modern mind; it is a Pythagorean concept which can at any rate not be understood without

\* *The Atlantic Monthly*, February, 1897.

a sympathetic familiarity with Greek philosophy. His recognition of private property as a corner-stone in social organization is more readily apprehended by modern thought. All we can definitely say is that Aristotle is aware of the dangerous quality of the formula of human equality "when applied indiscriminately to all stages of society and all sorts of men." He is aware too, as Professor Jowett observes, that democracy represents an irresistible trend in history and he desires to impose checks and limitations for its guidance. In support of an extensive political status and a wide rule of the many he makes citations the import of which is that many heads are wiser than one. "But, by Heaven," he suddenly exclaims, "in some cases this is impossible of application; for the argument would equally hold about brutes."\* Therefore to numerical equality he opposes proportional equality; instead of a mere head for head count wealth and education and merit are to be regarded. Citizens are to have powers and rights in proportion to their qualities, inclusive of their status and possessions. In short, he modifies the supremacy of numbers by subordinating all to the order of reason, to law.

8. The supremacy of law. To the Greek mind, law in its widest sense was the order of reason. Sovereignty must therefore lie with the law, and ought not to be vested in persons; but sovereignty as ordered reason should gain expression so that great things be not left to caprice. Law thus blended with religion, morality and public opinion; and much of what was due to national history and character, to the silent impact of society upon the individual, was ascribed to the direction of law. "We have here," as Butcher observes, "not a conception of law upon which a system of jurisprudence could be based, but one on which a theory of society might be reared."† Well might the orators declare that democracy in its true idea was the reign of law, and a hard headed

\* Bk. iii, Cap. xi.

† For an admirable statement of the Greek idea of law as an expression of reason, see S. M. Butcher, "Some Aspects of the Greek Genius," pp. 53-60.

Greek like Aristotle could say: "He who bids the law rule may be deemed to bid God and reason rule."

But law also spoke in terms of stern compulsion. Law as the order of the universe gained expression in statutory enactments or in command of king, council, or assembly. This positive announcement of the law through governmental agency was not always complete and perfect. So there was place left for emendations of the law regarded as formal expression of the will of governments or peoples; and progress in adaptations "which experience suggests" was provided for. There is too, in "The Politics," a recognition of the distinction between positive law and its administration. The training of judges is advised and the necessity of occasional decisions in equity is understood.

To the writer, no passages in "The Politics" have a greater charm than those paragraphs in which the customary and the written law are balanced against each other, since they reflect the two-sided conception of law as the order of the universe and imminent in human nature, and law as positive enactment or written law. Aristotle exalts the authenticity, the authority of customary law, and he expresses the following remarkable opinion:

"Customary laws have more weight and relate to more important matters than written laws, and a man may be a safer ruler than the written law, but not safer than the customary law." \*

This is akin to the respect and reverence which many a thoughtful lawyer develops for our English common law.

9. Political revolution or the permanence of constitutions. Aristotle seriously studied the conditions of Greek political experience and pointed out with minute care the disorders common to the Greek city-states. His treatment of political revolutions is in no sense what modern political philosophy discusses under the title, the right to revolution; it is rather an analysis of political revolutions as to their

\* Bk. iii, Cap. iii, § 17.

nature, their causes and occasions, their results and the means of avoiding them. He did not think deeply enough however when he said that if we know the causes of the ruin of states we know the remedies.

IV. The Ideal State. The attempt to describe an ideal state leads to a consideration of the life of the state behind the constitution, but itself conditioning the constitution, that is, the form of government. In order to show the significance of this topic in the discussion of political theory, it ought to be the subject of an entire paper. I can only indicate the suggestive method of Aristotle's analysis. The conditioning forces of the state Aristotle seeks to find: In an examination of the population, the social population, its composition and constitution; in a consideration of the territory, its character, climate, situation, fertility, extent, its economic resources and conditions; in a study of its industrial organization, its political economy, using the phrase here in the concrete sense as distinguished from the abstract science which we can better designate as economics; in its social institutions, its moral standards, its religion, its family life, and its system of education. In this seventh book Aristotle comes back to a number of fundamental problems considered in the introductory book; and we may say of the seventh book as we said of the first, that it occupies a field which is in part claimed by the sociologist.

V. Administration. I have placed the eighth book with the end of the sixth to give our modern point of view, but this cannot be regarded as Aristotelian. In Aristotle's discussion the treatment of education grows out of his attempt to construct an ideal state. Both Plato and Aristotle merge the construction of an ideal state into a system of education. They accord a high place in the state to education, "whereas, in modern treatises on politics, education is generally banished as being a part of another subject or a subject by itself." To Aristotle as well as to Plato education was a

part of the constitution. For both its form and its permanence were determined by educational aims and ends.

"But of all things which I have mentioned that which contributes most to the permanence of institutions is the adaptation of education to the form of government." \*

Modern scholars can still turn to the book on education to find both current ideas in happy phrase, and suggestion of educational philosophy and method. But of the other subjects, the magistracies or the civil service, which can be classed here, little can be said. He barely enumerates the magistracies and only incidentally describes their functions. His ideas of efficiency of service were extremely crude and primitive. He advocated a more than Jacksonian democracy when he proposed that offices should rotate semi-annually. There are scattered and incidental references to other subjects which properly fall under administration, and an exhaustive essay on "The Politics" would require that these be pointed out.

What now is our conclusion touching the aim and scope of "The Politics?" We have reviewed the analysis of the initial elements of the state, which Aristotle makes the bases of certain auxiliary sciences, which we now call sociology and economics, and which he regards as forming a necessary prelude to the study of politics, that is, the study of the organized state which is the largest of all associations and which includes all the rest. We have taken a brief look at what had been thought and said by the predecessors of Aristotle and what had been inwrought into the political experience of his time as typified by certain concrete constitutions like that of Carthage, Crete and Sparta. We next set ourselves the task of following Aristotle in his discussion of the state as organized for purposes of government, and we sketched, though briefly, the following topics which form the body of his great work: The distinction between state

\* Bk. v, Cap. ix, § 11.



and government; the definition of citizenship; the identity of states; the relation of ethics to politics; functions of government or the ends of the organized state; forms of government; the relatively best form; the supremacy and authority of law, and the permanence of constitutions. If the discussion of the state had stopped here, would it not be necessary to concede to the writer of "The Politics" the rank of a great political philosopher? But the discussion of the state did not stop with a discussion of the state as organized. In the closing books of this masterpiece of the classical age, we find a discussion of the state which raises many of the questions that are engaging the attention of political philosophy to-day, a discussion of questions that lie back of the constitution and in a manner determine it, a consideration of ways and means of social amelioration, and a prescribing of a régime of education which only states of the nineteenth century have come in a measure to incorporate. And finally, has Aristotle anything to contribute to the classification of the political sciences at the present time? Do we not yet, in accordance with principles laid down by him and in accordance with his method, distribute the field of investigation that lies back of and outside of the constitution among a group of special sciences, which we can call social if we will, but which we may, with no less propriety, call political?

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## UTILITY AND COST AS DETERMINANTS OF VALUE.

1. The general conclusions of the Austrian school in regard to the determination of value are stated in a paper by Professor von Boehm-Bawerk, on "The Ultimate Standard of Value," in the *ANNALS* for September, 1894. The essence of this paper would seem to be, that as a rule, utility (defined in the "Positive Theory of Capital," page 133,\* as "capacity to subserve human weal"), finally determines the value of goods practically to the exclusion of all other determinants in all important cases. Cost, in particular, is proclaimed to officiate as a final determinant of value only in a comparatively limited number of unimportant cases.† Those who regard cost as a factor of equal, or nearly equal, importance with utility in the final determination of value are declared to be mistaken, no matter what their idea of cost is.

While I never could agree with this doctrine, I have long hesitated to publish my objections against the conclusions of economists of so conspicuous and recognized ability as the Austrians, and Boehm-Bawerk in particular. Withal I am not unmindful of the fact that I owe to them the very foundation of much that I have to say.

2. The conclusions of Boehm-Bawerk as to the determination of value, in his paper in the *ANNALS*, seem to be at variance with some of his other teachings. He explains repeatedly in his writings that value nearly always is finally determined by marginal utility; even in his paper in the *ANNALS* he bases his arguments in favor of utility and against cost almost altogether upon explanations of that kind. He further says (in the "Positive Theory of Capital") that marginal utility is determined by utility and

\* The references are to Professor Smart's English translation.

† Pp. 7 and 60.

scarcity. Scarcity being nothing but a particular state of the supply (as compared with the demand), and supply being largely determined by cost, does it not follow from Boehm-Bawerk's own teachings, that after all cost nearly always is at least as final a determinant of value as utility?

But Boehm-Bawerk, where he speaks of "utility" as the final determinant of value, perhaps means marginal utility. For this, something might be said, *i. e.*, that the real arguments of Boehm-Bawerk toward establishing utility as the final determinant of value, do not go beyond those which tend to establish marginal utility as such final determinant. Still marginal utility has, even according to Boehm-Bawerk himself, absolutely nothing final about it. Can he speak of marginal utility in contrast to cost as the final determinant of value, when he declares, though indirectly, that marginal utility is determined by cost? The insignificance of the influence, furthermore, which Boehm-Bawerk ascribes to cost in the final determination of value, rather precludes the idea that by the utility which he declares to be, in contrast to cost, the sole final determinant of value in the large majority of cases, he means a utility which itself is determined by cost (*i. e.*, marginal utility).

3. No matter whether Boehm-Bawerk refers to utility, as he defines it, or to marginal utility, when he declares "utility" to be the sole final determinant of value in all important cases—his conclusion seems to be unsatisfactory either way. If he means utility, as he defines it,\* he fails—since he has declared value to be determined by marginal utility, and this by utility and scarcity—to account for scarcity, jumping in his argument from a determination of value by marginal utility to one by utility with utter neglect of the element of scarcity—just as if scarcity were a fixed and given element, instead of being just as much a variable factor of marginal utility as utility. If he means marginal utility where he speaks of "utility" as the final determinant

\* See p. 22, above.

of value, then his very statement that utility is the sole final determinant of value in all important cases, leads to the conclusion that in all of these cases cost is an even more final determinant. For Boehm-Bawerk himself shows that marginal utility is determined by utility and scarcity; and I have shown\* that it follows therefrom that cost is a determinant of marginal utility.

It seems, therefore, that Boehm-Bawerk's statement in regard to cost is erroneous under all circumstances.

My conclusions in this matter are not affected, as some have thought, by the fact that Boehm-Bawerk, when he speaks of utility, invariably refers, not to something like Adam Smith's "value is use," but to individual utility of a concrete good or quantity of goods.

4. How far I agree with others who declare cost to be a determinant of value, will appear below. I here desire to call attention only to a peculiar mistake which many champions of cost make. They try to defeat utility as the almost sole final determinant of value by battling—and that, of course, in vain—against marginal utility as fully determining value, and by trying—also, of course, in vain—to show that cost, to a greater or lesser extent, determines value either together with or in contrast to marginal utility, instead of putting cost in opposition to utility, and showing that it, as well as utility, is one of the determinants of value, because it affects value, just as utility does, through marginal utility. Many of the champions of utility and opponents of cost, on the other hand, trying to establish their point by showing that marginal utility is practically the sole determinant of value, an issue between marginal utility and cost is strangely created and often prevails throughout the argument, yielding suddenly in the conclusion to the issue between utility and cost, and leaving the allegations as to the relation of these conceptions standing in the air. Neither party seems to recognize that marginal utility and cost,

\* See p. 22, above.

properly conceived, stand in no opposition to each other whatever, and that the determination of value by marginal utility even implies a determination of value by cost. The result is much confusion and lack of mutual understanding.

The confusion is increased by the circumstance that many of the writers apparently regard a determination of value by cost as necessarily involving an equality of value and cost;\* while it is very plain that value may be determined by cost without being equal to it and also without being determined by it alone. Cost is merely one factor of the variable which we call value.

5. *Marginal utility† always and everywhere fully determines value.*

Boehm-Bawerk cites the case of the ticket for which another one can be obtained by the small personal trouble of another application, as illustrating a determination of value by disutility.‡ But a few pages farther on he says himself that, after all, we have in this case a determination of value by marginal utility. And, indeed, want is satisfied as well by averting and saving trouble as by procuring pleasure. The power of the ticket to save the trouble of another application is its true marginal utility.

Another instance cited by Boehm-Bawerk of determination of value by disutility (the only case in which it occurs

\* What has come to be called "equality" in this connection is really not equality at all, but rather a correspondence. Here and elsewhere quantitative comparisons between value, cost, utility, etc., must be understood to refer to degree of affection (positive and negative) of human weal only, without reference to kind. At best, we have equality in a certain respect only.

† By marginal utility, I mean the utility of the last increment contemplated. It refers to the last want which is actually or hypothetically satisfied, and which would go unsatisfied without the possession and use of the increment in question. Why in any case we should have recourse in this matter to the "first unsatisfied want," I fail to see. In reference to things we possess we look at the last wants satisfied by them and not at those beyond; while in contemplating the value to us of things we do not possess, we look at the wants which they would satisfy if we should possess them, and not at the first want which they would leave unsatisfied. In no case is the value of the thing in question dependent upon the first want which that thing leaves or would leave unsatisfied. The matter-of-course-fact that we produce for unsatisfied want has no bearing on this question.

‡ Conrad's *Jahrbücher*, New Series, Vol. xiii, p. 42.

in full force, according to him\*), is that of the product of leisure hours. Tools made in leisure hours, he says, are valued by the amount of disutility involved in the labor devoted to them. I regret I cannot agree with Boehm-Bawerk. If a man whittles an ax-handle in his leisure hours and discovers afterward that he has made a bad job of it, he does not value it much, though, perhaps, he spent much time on it; and if, on the other hand, he did a very nice job in a very short time, he values his work not the less because he did it in his leisure hours. Products of leisure hours, it seems to me, are valued just as other products. For similar reasons, I believe, all the other cases must be dismissed which might be or have been regarded as exceptions to the determination of value by marginal utility.

In some of the cases referred to there is really a peculiarity, but it seems to me that what has been taken for a peculiarity of determination by disutility, is really a peculiarity of measurement by a foreign negative value. The case of the ticket above cited is a good example of this class of cases. It is not a disutility of the ticket in the sense of cost, nor any other cost-disutility, but simply the negative value and marginal utility of another application—something altogether foreign to the ticket itself—which serves, not as the determinant, but merely as the measure of the value and marginal utility of the ticket; and this happens simply because this foreign negative value and marginal utility, while indicating, negatively, with accuracy, the amount of the value and marginal utility of the ticket, present themselves more vividly to the mind and are more readily grasped by it than the value and marginal utility of the ticket itself. There is a peculiar measurement, but hardly a peculiar determination, of value in these cases. Surely there is as full and complete a determination of value by the marginal utility of the object in question in these cases as in any other case.

\*ANNALS, Vol. v, p. 200, September, 1894.



My view of this matter is further confirmed by the fact that we have an exact correlative to the phenomenon just discussed in the occasional measurement of negative value by a foreign positive value. The negative value of a flood which cannot be prevented is, for instance, often measured by the value of the goods destroyed; and a similar measurement is the rule wherever a good object is defeated or a service prevented by the thing in question; provided, of course, the defeat of that object or prevention of that service constitute the marginal utility of the thing in question.

In all these cases we have simply a measurement of one value and marginal utility by another value, and marginal utility conceived in the negative. At the utmost we can aver a determination of the value of an object by the negative of the marginal utility of another object. At any rate, the phenomenon works both ways, from the negative side to the positive as well as from the positive to the negative, and cost of the object in question is not involved, except indirectly.

6. By what is marginal utility determined? The Austrians tell us "by the relation of wants and their provision," "by utility and scarcity," "by human well-being." Scarcity, they say, determines how far the marginal utility actually does rise in the concrete case, while utility fixes the limit to which it may rise. The information received from the Austrians on this point seems rather meagre. It leaves us somewhat in the dark as to the influence which cost exerts through marginal utility upon value. It leads us, indeed, indirectly to the conclusion that cost is as final a determinant of value as utility is, but this is apparently contradicted by the final conclusion of the Austrian school.

7. The truth in the matter, it seems to me, is this: Marginal utility is always a resultant of utility and of the condition of the supply, present and prospective. All supply is nothing but the available output of the forces at work for its production. The total product of these forces falls short of

the demand; though in some directions, principally where not controlled by man, they produce a supply much larger than that needed by man. In some instances, *i. e.*, in cases of actual over-supply, a burdensome excess of the supply even creates a want, *i. e.*, for protection and removal. As far, therefore, as man controls the forces of production, including those he exerts himself, he aims to economize them, and to regulate the production of his supply so as to obtain the greatest amount of satisfaction from them. Other things being equal, he would aim to supply the wants not satisfied by forces outside of his conscious control, in the order of their importance. But other things are not equal. There is a great difference in the difficulty of satisfying the different wants. Quite as much consideration is, therefore, given to this difficulty as to the urgency of the different wants. In consequence, therefore, many less urgent wants, whose satisfaction is easy, or incidental to that of urgent wants, are quite commonly and normally satisfied, while more important wants remain unsatisfied because of the great sacrifice which their satisfaction involves.

It is on account of the difficulties which nature and man-made conditions interpose between us and the satisfaction of our wants that this satisfaction does not everywhere extend to the point of satiation. Without this difficulty marginal utility everywhere would be equal to zero, and the conception of economic value would hardly ever have bothered man's mind.

8. We find (*a*) that the difficulty in the way of satisfying all our wants, or of acquiring (and in particular producing) the total amount of the things by which these wants might be satisfied, limits this satisfaction, and the supply on which this satisfaction depends. (*b*) That the satisfaction of each particular class of wants, and also that of each individual want, depends upon the comparative difficulty of their satisfaction; and that the amount of the supply serving to satisfy the different wants always depends upon the

comparative difficulty of procuring or acquiring the different supplies. In consequence, marginal utility and value are in absolutely every case determined as much by the difficulty of procuring or acquiring supply as by anything else.

The difficulty of procuring or acquiring supply which is effective in determining value in this way is not the difficulty of procuring or acquiring any amount of supply, and likewise not the actual difficulty, encountered in the past, of procuring the goods under consideration themselves,\* but the difficulty of procuring or acquiring then and there, or within fairly discountable distances of time and place, and by the means within reach, at the margin of difficulty,† additional supply equal, in capacity to subserve human weal, to the things under consideration under the particular circumstances; or, in short, the marginal difficulty of substitution, or replacement.

The difficulty of anything is measured by the sacrifice necessary to overcome such difficulty. Sacrifices, in relation to the object for which they are made or would have to be made, are called cost. Marginal cost of substitution, or replacement, is therefore a determining element of value to the same extent as marginal difficulty of substitution, or replacement. Cost may consist of any sort of discomfort or of pain, of loss of goods or services, loss of the benefits to be derived therefrom, loss of time and opportunity to enjoy pleasures, or of any other sacrifices. These sacrifices may, like the utilities of things, be spiritual or moral as well as temporal; may be measured each in terms of the others, by the same process of mental balancing as that by which we measure pleasures, utilities and values; and may, also each and all, be measured in terms of pain, contemporary or other, or even in terms of value and pleasure. ‡

\* See Sections 10 and 13, below.

† What is meant by the "margin" of difficulty hardly needs further explanation; likewise, it is hardly necessary to warn against its confusion with the "margin" of utility.

‡ Compare Section 5, above.

9. The marginal cost of substitution to which I have referred is a cost of acquisition, not of production or of reproduction. To him who produces his supply himself, and to society as a whole, the marginal cost of acquisition of supply is of course the same as the cost of production of it. The same holds true with the so-called "free goods," the cost of production of which is equal to zero. It is otherwise, in many respects, with the goods which man obtains by barter or exchange; and these, at least under present social conditions, constitute the bulk of the goods which claim our interest. Their cost is affected by division of labor, industrial organization and combination, and restriction by law and natural conditions. In particular these factors cause a great decrease in the general cost of production, as compared with what it would be if everybody produced for himself. But the full benefit of this decrease goes to the acquirer (buyer) as such, as a rule in the case of freely reproducible goods only. In their case, cost of substitution is usually about equal to that of production (including, in the wider sense, cost of exchange, delivery, etc., of additional supply) or of reproduction. In many cases, however, much more has or would have to be sacrificed for substitution, *i. e.*, acquisition of further supply, than what it costs, or would cost, to produce further supply at the margin. This is the rule where the supply is controlled by a monopoly. With other supplies again, in particular with irreproducible scarcity-goods and with depreciated goods, the reverse holds true:—the marginal cost of substitution is commonly lower than that of the production of additional supply, or of reproduction. Everywhere, even where cost of acquisition, of which that of substitution is only a particular kind, is in individual cases so very different from cost of production, the former is in the long run largely controlled by the latter; though to perceive this plainly we must consider the whole field of production and exchange within long periods of time. But, after all, it is only in so far as cost of production, or reproduction, is

equal to, or influences marginal cost of acquisition, and in particular marginal cost of substitution, that it is an element of value.

10. It must be observed, furthermore, that it is a contemporary cost of substitution, and not the actual cost in the past of the object under consideration, which determines value. The actual cost of acquisition of the particular goods which we may be considering is of moment for the determination of value only in so far as it is equal to or influences the contemporary cost of substitution. But this is very frequently the case, since economic conditions are more or less stationary, and since custom and habit have a certain weight in fixing values and prices. In the continuous process of events, furthermore, past and contemporary cost merge into each other, and even in individual cases there is often very little difference between the actual cost of the things under contemplation and the cost of additional equivalent supply. Thus, the impression of a complete dependence of value on actual cost of acquisition, and production,\* is easily produced on an untrained or careless observer. Except in the case of scarcity-goods (where as a rule there is a marked difference between actual cost of acquisition and production in the past, and contemporary cost of acquisition and production of additional supply) it has often been held therefore that there is a more direct and fundamental dependence of value upon actual cost of acquisition and production in the past, than that seeming determination which I have just described, and which partakes rather of the nature of a concurrence than of that of a dependence. But one has only to observe how value is affected by a sudden great change of marginal cost of acquisition or production, resulting in a great difference between contemporary cost of substitution and actual cost, in the past, of the object considered, to be convinced that actual cost in the past is not a determinant of value in the strict sense.

\*See Section 9, above.

In general it may finally be observed that, from the relation of marginal cost of substitution to marginal utility and value, the relation of any other kind of cost to marginal utility and value may easily be determined by a contemplation of the relation of such cost to marginal cost of substitution.

II. The character of the determining influence which marginal cost of substitution exerts upon marginal utility and value, and the result of this influence may be stated in the form of a law or rule as follows:

*Marginal utility and value\* never rise above marginal cost of substitution; if lower than this cost, they generally tend to rise up to it; being limited, however, in following this tendency by the upper bounds of utility.* In a shorter form, giving the most important application of the rule only: *Value generally tends to equal marginal cost of additional supply, but not beyond the bounds of utility.*

This rule applies to the whole field of valuation. The reason of the rule is plain. On the one hand, the value and marginal utility of an object can never be higher than the cost of a substitute equally capable to subserve human weal. On the other hand, they can be lower than this cost only where the supply is so plentiful in comparison with the demand, that there is no use for any addition to it. But consumption and the decay incident to the lapse of time generally reduce the supply and tend to move marginal utility and value upwards to the upper limit of utility; exceptions, other than temporary, occurring only where the supply lastingly increases as much as or more than the demand.

\*To obviate misunderstandings I wish to remark that by "value" in this paper I refer, in accordance with Boehm-Bawerk's definition on page 130 of his "Positive Theory of Capital," primarily to the importance for human welfare possessed by an object. Those who prefer to apply the term to the importance for human welfare ascribed to an object, will find little difficulty in recognizing how my conclusions would have to be modified in order to adapt them to that definition. Any object, for the purpose of this discussion, I regard as important for, and as subserving, human weal, according as it satisfies human wants and desires, regardless of their moral quality.



Now the upper limit of utility either (*a*) may attain or surpass the marginal cost of substitution—this is the rule with the utility of most of the goods with which we have to deal—or (*b*) it may not do so—as in the case of an original masterpiece of which no duplicate exists or can be made. In the former case (*a*) marginal utility and value will frequently be, or become, equal to marginal cost of substitution and will generally have a tendency to do so; in the latter case (*b*) marginal utility and value cannot equal marginal cost of substitution, but will tend to do it as far as the upper limit of a possibly falling utility permits.

The equalization of value with marginal cost, or the tendency toward it, is carried into effect by a rise or fall either of marginal utility and value, or of marginal cost, or of all of them—such rise or fall being the result either of changes in natural conditions, or of the acts of man. Man is guided, in his actions which affect marginal utility, largely by considerations of marginal cost, and *vice versa*, and, therefore, a mutual interdependence subsists between the two conceptions. We have not a simple dependency of marginal utility upon marginal cost; though the determination of the former by the latter is the phenomenon which most impresses us.

The explanations of this section might be amplified by a discussion of the phenomena appearing under certain more complicated conditions. An instance is the case of alternate uses, where we have as a rule to consider several costs of substitution as well as several uses and utilities in regard to one and the same object. I desire, however, to confine myself in this paper to the discussion of leading principles.

12. Even defenders of cost have said that in the case of scarcity-goods, value is determined by utility alone. At first glance this would indeed seem plausible. But what makes goods scarcity-goods? Is not a scarcity-good a good whose marginal cost of substitution is disproportionately large or infinite? And is it not merely because marginal cost of substitution is so large with these goods, that utility apparently

rules supreme in their case? This cost, therefore, is just as much an essential element of the value of these goods as their utility.

In the case of free goods, marginal cost of substitution is equal to, or below, zero, and marginal utility and value are equal to, or below, zero. That this is not a mere accident appears quite clearly whenever these goods cease to be free, *i. e.*, whenever their marginal cost of substitution goes up above zero. Let water or air become scarce, and there is eventually hardly anything man will not give for even a small quantity of them. In this instance, as elsewhere in the case of necessities, the highest utility being infinite and the demand constant, value adjusts itself so closely to marginal cost that it hardly ever deviates from it.

Suppose, next, that marginal cost of supply of an article be made uniform through a monopoly at a certain price. If, before this occurs, marginal utility has been above that price, it comes down to it at once; if marginal utility has been below the monopoly price, it tends to rise to this price, and, in the long run, stays below it only if the utility of the article nowhere attains the monopoly price. So long as this is the case, the marginal cost of substitution being beyond the upper bounds of the utility of the article, its value will never equal this cost, but will constantly tend to rise to it, ultimately equaling the highest utility of the article, but of course unable to rise beyond that. Practically, such a case rarely occurs, because monopoly prices are usually fixed so that sales can take place.

In the case of freely reproducible goods finally we have as a result of the working of the forces described under Section 11, a constant tendency of value and marginal utility to equal marginal cost of substitution. This tendency is none the less potent because a nice adjustment in accordance with it is frequently prevented by disturbing factors, or by the indirect manner in which the tendency often has to exert its influence.

13. The law of costs, which holds that the value of freely reproducible goods, in the long run, adjusts itself according to their cost, has its foundation in this tendency. It holds true, not only if understood to refer to marginal cost of substitution, but also if understood to refer to cost of reproduction, or even to actual cost of production.\*

The medium in which we calculate cost in this connection does not make any essential difference. We may calculate cost in goods, labor, money, pleasure, or anything else of value and positive utility, or in pain, and find the law of costs confirmed. But of course we must calculate correctly. We cannot obtain correct results, unless in summing up costs and in bringing them under one denominator, we take account of all the sacrifices actually incurred as cost, and employ true economic equivalents for them. We must, for instance, not neglect the influence of time or the differences of quality. To illustrate: Though to the skilled laborer himself his work is perhaps less painful than to the unskilled, still it costs a great deal more to procure additional supply or a substitute in the case of skilled labor than in the case of unskilled labor, and, therefore, a greater amount of economic sacrifice, pain and discomfort is represented by the expenditure of skilled labor, and involved in its (at the same time more productive) employment. Very manifestly, if, in calculating cost, we take account of one kind of cost only, where other kinds are involved at the same time, or if we neglect time and quality, we cannot but arrive at the conclusion that if we calculate cost in that manner, the law of costs does not hold true.

14. Boehm-Bawerk, the other Austrians apparently agreeing with him, says that the cost referred to in the "law of costs" in most cases is determined by utility, and by it alone. This doctrine, and the reasoning upon which it is based, seem to be open to objection. If cost is identical with the value of the productive power, and this is determined

\* See Sections 9 and 10, above.

by marginal utility,\* it does by no means follow that value is finally determined by utility. We can, at best, reason from value and marginal utility through cost to another value and marginal utility; but thence, without heed of the "marginal," to utility, or even to sacrifice-utility is a jump fatal to the soundness of any conclusion. Sacrifice-utilities,† by the way, look to me much more like costs than like utilities; disbursements are not receipts.

But what of the leveling of marginal utilities with marginal utilities of which Boehm-Bawerk makes so much? This leveling fulfills an important function, but it affords only a very partial explanation of the law of costs. It does not go to the root of the matter. After all the leveling of marginal utilities with each other has been done in a specific case that can be done, we still may properly inquire: What determines these marginal utilities in their totality, and thereby every one of them, and why do we not find all of them at zero? The leveling of marginal utilities with marginal utilities gives no answer. We find it in the difficulty of procuring supply which is represented by cost.

*It is a balancing of utilities with costs which in the end determines the margin of either, under consideration of the urgency of human wants on one side, and of the difficulty of their satisfaction, growing out of natural or artificial conditions on the other.*

This balancing of utilities with costs Boehm-Bawerk has, it seems to me, confounded, or certainly neglected in comparison, with the leveling of marginal utilities with each other. He apparently overlooks the intrinsic distinction between utility and cost as well as the great independent influence of the latter. But for cost the problems of value would hardly vex us at all.‡ Here want, there difficulty of supply; here pleasure, there pain; here gain, there sacrifice; both sides have an importance of their own, and,

\* ANNALS, Vol. v, p. 199, September, 1894.

† *Ibid.* p. 207.

‡ See Section 7, above.

to that extent, must be kept strictly apart. The one is the economic reverse of the other. The excess in favor of pleasure and gain largely determines human well-being, progress and increase. Value is determined in the effort to make these as large as possible. Human well-being itself, though apparently an independent factor in the determination of value, is, in the long run, largely a result of the same conditions and forces which determine value.

15. So far we have considered almost exclusively positive value. Value, however, often is, or becomes, negative, going down with marginal utility below zero. In all such cases we find the limit below which the negative value and marginal utility of anything cannot fall, marked by "the cost of then and there, or within fairly discountable distances of time and place, and by the means within reach, either preventing or removing, according to circumstances, a supply, including here the object under consideration, of equal detriment to human welfare, at the margin of easiest prevention or removal," or by analogy: by the marginal cost of repression. This means that negative value never grows larger in the negative direction than marginal cost of repression, or, what means the same, never falls below it, considering marginal cost of repression as negative cost. This limitation on negative value equally applies to value in general. So likewise does the rule stated for positive value under Section 11, above. By combination we obtain then the following general rule:

*Value and marginal utility of an object never rise above marginal cost of substitution and never fall below marginal cost of repression. Within these bounds they generally tend toward an equality with marginal cost of substitution; this, however, not beyond the upper bounds of the positive utility of the object in question.\**

\* This rule, under consideration of what is said in the note to Section 4 above, and under Section 21 below, I should prefer to frame as follows: The value of an object always corresponds to the economic efficiency of such object. Value, in amount, never rises above marginal cost of substitution, and never falls below

16. From what I have said I hope it appears clearly that cost is always a distinct and most essential factor in the determination of value. But its function, if my view is correct, is more or less different from what it is said to be by most, if not all, other defenders of its value-determining quality. Sharp distinctions must be drawn, in the way indicated in my previous remarks, between the different kinds of cost which I have mentioned. These distinctions, though most, and perhaps all, of them not new, are frequently overlooked. Cost, furthermore, does not by itself alone determine value in any case. Without utility there is no value—in the case of freely reproducible goods as little as anywhere else. He who regards cost as the sole determinant of value in the case of freely reproducible goods, assumes utility as a matter of course, just as he who regards utility as the sole determinant of value in the case of scarcity-goods, assumes cost as a matter of course; the one as much as the other erroneously. Those who represent value as determined by utility and cost in conjunction, come nearest to the truth, if I am not mistaken. But (*a*) most, if not all, of those who stand for this view of the question, except scarcity-goods. Some of them (*b*), furthermore, represent value as either generally, or at least in the case of freely reproducible goods, always determined by a meeting of utility and cost (comparison with the blades of a pair of shears). In reality (*a*) the same law applies to the whole field of valuation, and (*b*) even in the case of freely reproducible goods there is only a strong tendency of value (and marginal utility) to equal cost, but by no means always a meeting of the two. Finally, the rule given under Section 15 states a twofold limitation on value and marginal utility by, indeed two different kinds of, cost, which seems to have been overlooked in this connection.

17. As to the connection of labor with value, it is indeed marginal cost of repression. Within these bounds value tends to correspond in amount to marginal cost of substitution; this, however, not beyond the upper bounds of the positive economic capacity of the object in question.



clear that labor has much to do with the determination of value. But utility and cost fully cover the ground. Labor determines value in so far only as it constitutes either cost or utility; it may constitute either because labor has come to be used in economics to denote not activity only; but, among other conceptions, also the sacrifice involved in labor, and the advantage of command over labor. In the former sense labor constitutes the most important element of cost; in the latter it constitutes frequently the chief utility of an object. It is manifestly untrue that the labor socially necessary to produce or reproduce a good finally and completely determines its value in all cases. It is not true, not even in a single case, because such a proposition ignores altogether the important part which utility plays in the determination of value.

Those who represent value as ultimately and completely determined by labor have fallen into their error, I believe, through a confusion of the determination of value with the creation of wealth; through a tendency to exaggerate the importance of labor; through a confusion of determination and measurement, and through a mistaken notion as to the dependence of socialism on such a theory. The mistakes here involved, in connection with the fact that to the man without property most sacrifices he makes in the procuring of goods resolve themselves into labor, evidently served as the basis of, and have given a specious plausibility to, that straight and uncompromising labor theory of value which was apparently thought by Marx and others to be the very key to the position of socialism. Socialism, however, is not dependent upon this sham, and does not rely upon it except in wrong theories. If the socialists want a society in which labor (-cost) regulates all values, what necessity is there of alleging that labor completely and finally determines values everywhere, and especially in the present society? It is not difficult to refute such a proposition. But to refute it is not to refute

socialism. The socialists, therefore, had better give up this mistaken support and change their position in regard to this matter so as to demand simply a society in which labor (-cost) regulates values to a larger extent than it does in the present society. It would relieve them from defending an absolutely untenable position, and some of their adversaries from believing that they have captured the citadel of the enemy, while they have taken merely a worthless breast-work.

Even in a socialistic society, though there might be a regulation of values according to labor, there would be a complete determination of values by labor only in a limited sense. There would be something in the nature of a pooling of all the other sacrifices, all except labor, which the procuring of goods would make necessary; they would be borne by society as a whole, and thrown upon the different goods and thereby upon the consumers in proportion to the labor involved in producing or procuring them. It is evident that the influence of these other sacrifices would thereby not be abolished, but merely regulated, and concealed to superficial observation, being made to follow the determining influence of labor (-cost). There would, furthermore, not infrequently occur more or less serious deviations of value and price from the (labor-) price of the socialistic state, because, as we have seen, marginal cost of substitution, presuming even that the socialistic state should gain full control of that, holds by no means absolute sway over value and price. It would require prudent management to overcome the difficulties which would arise from this source.

As to Adam Smith, he evidently regarded labor not as the exclusive determinant of value, but merely as a superior measure of it, and even that not without qualifications. He speaks of labor indeed as of an ultimate standard of value; but a standard is a very different thing from a determinant.\*

\*The German word "*Bestimmgrund*" may properly be translated by "determinant," but not by "standard." The German equivalent for "standard," in its proper application in the discussion of value, and in the sense in which Adam Smith uses it in this connection, is "*Normal mass*," or simply "*Mass*."

18. We have reached the conclusion that value and marginal utility are determined by utility and cost (of substitution). Any disturbing factors, if there are any, can be important only in the contemplation of individual cases of valuation. In the long run they merge into utility and cost. Cost of substitution, furthermore, in the long run is the same as cost of supply, and this in turn is, in the long run, the same as cost of production in the wider sense. In a general way, then, utility and cost may certainly be regarded as the great determinants of value, comprising all the elements which enter into the problem, and fully covering it; the one from the side of advantage, contentment and pleasure (not to be understood in the narrow, hedonistic sense), derived from the satisfaction of wants, the other from the side of the difficulty of the attainment of an equivalent satisfaction, and of the pain to be endured in such attainment. If more attention and space have been devoted in these pages to the discussion of the influence of cost upon value than to that of utility, it is, of course, not because I regard the latter as the less important of the two, but simply because its importance has been better demonstrated and its influence on value better explained.

19. I proceed, in this paper, upon the theory that usefulness (*Nuetzlichkeit*) and utility (*Nutzen*) are essentially synonymous. Common usage and the acknowledged authorities on language alike sanction this theory; it has the approval of so thorough an exponent of the Austrian school as Professor W. Smart,\* and Boehm-Bawerk's use of the words in many places seems to confirm it. There are, however, strong indications that utility is often used by most, if not all, of the Austrians in quite a different sense from that of "capacity to subserve human weal," and I apprehend that the various meanings inconsistently attached to the word "utility" have been the source of not less serious misunderstandings than the variety of conceptions covered by the

\* "Theory of Value," p. 12.

word "cost." Two meanings in particular have been attached to the word "utility," which widely differ from the conception of "capacity to subserve human weal." One is "importance;" the other "influence upon human weal." Boehm-Bawerk himself speaks of marginal utility as an "importance;" and if marginal utility denotes importance, utility denotes importance also.

Utility in this sense is always equal to marginal utility in the corresponding sense.\* If Boehm-Bawerk uses utility, in contradistinction to usefulness, to denote importance, then, of course, he cannot be criticised for jumping from marginal utility to utility. But his position regarding cost still remains wrong. Cost in this case is, in common with usefulness, always a determinant of value through utility, and it is, therefore, wrongly put in opposition to utility.

Besides, two further objections have to be raised if utility is used in the sense of importance. The first is that utility is used in an altogether unusual sense, and, that, without a special declaration to that effect, a distinction is introduced into the use of two common words (utility and usefulness) which is neither in accordance with common usage nor sanctioned by the authorities on language. The second is that utility, in the sense of "importance," is synonymous with (subjective) value; so that the discovery that value depends on utility amounts to nothing, and constitutes even a step backward from the valuable discovery that value is determined at the margin. All the purposes which marginal utility, in the sense of "importance of the marginal increment," serves may just as well be attained by the conception of marginal value. There is no need in the theory of value for two conceptions, both denoting importance ("Bedeutung" or "*Wichtigkeit*") of goods.

\*Some might think that marginal utility, if utility is used in the sense of "capacity to subserve human weal," would be as large as this utility is in general; for is not the marginal increment just as capable "to subserve human weal" as any other increment? This objection is obviated if we regard marginal utility as *that* "capacity to subserve human weal" to which the marginal increment is limited as such marginal increment.

The employment of utility in the sense of "influence upon human weal" largely obviates the last two objections urged against its employment in the sense of "importance." The allegation that value, *i. e.*, "importance for human weal," depends on utility, *i. e.*, "influence on human weal," would seem to constitute a real logical step, though a very short one. The two conceptions are not synonymous; still, there is so little difference between them that the second one is not absolutely necessary as a regular part of the theory of value. From the standpoint of language, not very much objection can be raised against the use of utility in the sense of "influence on human weal;" such use is not extraordinary, though, as a rule, confined so as to denote beneficial influence on human weal, or positive efficiency in subserving it.

But what I have said about utility, in the sense of "importance," regarding its relation to the determination of value, to marginal utility and to cost, also holds true with utility in the sense of "influence upon human weal." I have searched in vain for a meaning of the word utility which would justify its being set up, as against cost, as the exclusive, or approximately exclusive, final determinant of value, even in a single case.

20. Perhaps it would be desirable to eliminate, in accordance with Professor Smart's suggestion,\* the word utility altogether from the discussion of the theory of value, and to use usefulness exclusively. Until some agreement is reached, I shall use utility as synonymous with usefulness, and both in the sense of "capacity to subserve human weal." Personally, I should prefer to employ usefulness, if the word is retained at all in this connection, to denote "influence on human weal," and to express the conception of "capacity to subserve human weal" by "capacity for usefulness" (*Nutzfähigkeit*). Then value, being equal to marginal value, would be fully determined by usefulness,

\* "Theory of Value," p. 12.

which, in turn, would be equal to marginal usefulness, and would be determined (like marginal usefulness) by "capacity for usefulness" and "cost" in conjunction. Utility, if its use were retained in this case, I should prefer to have used as a synonym of usefulness.

Best of all it would seem to me to use neither utility nor usefulness in the discussion at hand. They cannot be used in their really proper sense; every teacher of elementary economics now finds it necessary to explain to his pupils that the most useless and vicious object may be an exceedingly useful thing from the standpoint of economics. Why continue this distortion of language, if it can be avoided? It seems to me that the expressions "economic efficiency" (*Wirtschaftliche Wirksamkeit*), and "economic capacity" (*Wirkungsfähigkeit*), would answer every purpose. All that would have to be explained is that by "economic" we refer to that which pertains to the satisfaction of human wants, regardless of the effect such satisfaction has on human well-being.\* It is furthermore manifest that in the course of economic discussion the proposed terms often might be used without the qualifying "economic;" especially where "marginal" is added. The proposed terms would have the further advantage that they would lend themselves as well to the discussion of negative value as to that of positive value; this cannot be said of utility and usefulness.

21. A full determination of value by the conceptions of utility and cost does not exclude equally full determinations of value by other conceptions, and the importance of the theory of utility and cost must not be overestimated in this direction. A triangle is determined in several ways, and the same chemical compound as a rule may be formed or dissolved by several methods. So, there is no doubt, a determination of value may be made in other ways than that

\*The adoption of the proposed terms would also counteract the economic misuse of "human welfare" and "well-being" as identical with the satisfaction of human desires. I have given way to that in this paper because I wished to follow the phraseology and definitions of others.



discussed above. For instance, supply and demand, marginal pleasure and pain, wants and aversions, benefits and sacrifices, and marginal value suggest themselves as conceptions by which other—possibly in many ways not as expedient, but in many ways better—solutions of the problem have been or might be arrived at, even without any mention of utility and cost at all. For we must be conscious of the fact that utility and cost are by no means elementary factors. The elements contained in them may, therefore, easily be comprised in other conceptions, differing from utility and cost, not only in name, but also more or less in individual content. Of course any correct theory operating with such other conceptions, would, if the theory here presented is right, confirm and support it. This, I believe, is the case with the present demand-and-supply theory, if rightly understood.

22. It is because utility and cost are not elementary factors that I do not call them final determinants of value. Though I objected, under Section 3, above, to marginal utility only as a final determinant, it must not be inferred that I would approve of utility as such. All I intended to say was this: That marginal utility, being determined in part by cost, could not be set up as against cost as the final determinant of value, not even in the limited sense in which the expression has come to be used in the controversy over the final determination of value. Nothing that is not really, at least to our best knowledge, a final element, ought to be distinguished by this adjective. We have found such elements in mathematics and logic, and in a more limited sense in physics and chemistry; in economics, strictly speaking, we have not found them. It may, however, be said that economics is a science of the third or fourth grade, not aiming to trace its conceptions to absolutely elementary foundations, but operating with the complex conceptions of the fundamental sciences (mathematics and logic—physics and chemistry—physiology, biology, psychology, etc.), as its elementary ones. From this standpoint possibly utility and cost, and

certainly pleasure and pain, might be regarded as final or ultimate in economics. It is in this sense, it would seem, that these adjectives have been frequently employed in the controversy over the final determination of value, while on many other occasions in that controversy they have been used in a relative way merely:—referring to utility, or marginal utility, as final determinants only in comparison with other determinants (*i. e.*, labor, cost, etc.), and *vice versa*.

The really final determinants of value, if there are any, and their relations to value, are beyond our vision, and plain and intelligible to an all-comprehensive mind only. Nevertheless it is a task not only of theoretical interest, but also of eminently practical importance, to penetrate further and further into the maze of relations before us, and to gain all possible clearness about them.

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## THE PLACE OF THE POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN MODERN EDUCATION,

AND THEIR BEARING ON THE TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP  
IN A FREE STATE.\*

It will be noted that among the subjects to which the Academy has given some attention from the beginning of its work belongs the wide field of education, and I have been asked on one or two occasions why an Academy of Political and Social Science should concern itself with education or educational problems which seem to belong rather to a society for the promotion of pedagogy than to ours. In reply we may say that education has become one of the great branches of public administration. This century will be known to coming generations very largely for the fact that education has become a function of the state. It is becoming to an increasing extent, secular. It is passing in an ever larger proportion from the control of the church to the control of the state. If you were to look over the budget of any of our great modern cities for the eighteenth century, you would find that education, as a subject of expenditure on the part of the community, played almost no part whatever; whereas, if you examine the budget of these cities to-day, you will find that it is one of the largest departments of public administration, that it involves an expenditure oftentimes in excess of that of any other single branch of public service. Now this passing of education from the hands of the church, and private individuals, or of private associations and corporations, into the hands of the state, cannot have occurred without a deep and fundamental reflex effect upon the

\*An address delivered before the American Academy of Political and Social Science at the general meeting, April 21, 1897, by the President of the Academy, Edmund J. James, A. M., Ph. D., Professor in the University of Chicago.

methods, spirit and attitude of education itself. The questions relating to educational organization, to educational integration, have become among the most important falling within the general field of the political and social sciences. So that, so far from our having gone out of our way in giving so much attention to these problems, we are really face to face to-day with the question of education as never before. We must give therefore an increasing rather than a decreasing attention to a subject which thus presents itself at many unexpected points in the problem of city and state government, and from all present indications is destined to assume an ever-increasing importance.

There is another and perhaps an even more intimate aspect to the relation of the Academy to educational questions, and that is, the relation of the subject-matter to the cultivation of which the Academy is devoted, to the great problems of education higher and lower in this and other countries. The social sciences, using that term in the broadest sense, are concerned with society, its organization, its history, its characteristics, its relationship to other sides of the history of mankind, etc. It is natural that as our knowledge of these subjects increases, it should assume a new and more important relation to pedagogical questions in the narrowest sense of the term than it had in the earlier days. It is therefore appropriate for an organization of this kind to give a somewhat special attention to this particular subject in these times when every man, and possibly every woman, is called upon at one time or another to express a judgment or possibly to undertake an action, prompted by, or at least based upon, some theory in regard to these fundamental questions. I have no apology to make, therefore, for the topic which I have chosen to discuss and to which I wish to call your most careful consideration.

What is the relation of the political and social sciences; those subjects to the cultivation of which the Academy is devoted, toward the great problems of modern education,

and what is their bearing upon the problem of training for citizenship in our modern free states? It will be, perhaps, as well if, for the sake of clearness, I lay down in a somewhat direct and dogmatic way the proposition which I propose to advance for your consideration, and in regard to which I shall offer certain suggestions. I propose, then, this thesis: that the political and social sciences, or perhaps better, that the subject-matter of the political and social sciences must be utilized for purposes of education or instruction in all grades of our educational system, from the university to the kindergarten. I mean that politics and economics, using those terms in the largest sense, or that the subject-matter of these sciences, must become a constituent part of the educational curriculum, using that term in the largest sense, of our system of intellectual, political and industrial training.

I am aware that, in using these terms, the sciences of politics and economics, I am assuming something which many able authorities would maintain stands in need of proof; namely, that these subjects are real sciences. I know a distinguished college president, who in opposing the development of these subjects in college, said, not long ago, that there was nothing, no branch in this whole field, to which the name science could be strictly applied. They were at most subjects of investigation and research of more or less value, evidently implying in his remarks that they were of less value. Now it is undoubtedly true that you may make a definition of the term science which will exclude from that designation political economy even in the highly developed and complicated formulæ of the mathematical school, or in the only less complicated and somewhat attenuated formulæ of the Austrian school. If, for example, you make a definition of science which would include only mathematics, or a subject similar to mathematics, it is evident that none of these subjects would properly fall under the term science. Or, if you included under that term only such a subject as inorganic chemistry or mathematical physics,

these topics might be excluded in the same way. I am not, however, much concerned about this particular proposition.

Whether the so-called political and social sciences are really sciences or not, or whether they are merely subjects for investigation and research, or whether they are mere aggregations of more or less interesting facts, is for my purpose a matter of indifference. Whatever they may be from this point of view, my proposition is that this sort of instruction, the information we have about these particular subjects, is destined to be utilized more and more in our educational system. Perhaps in order to place the proposition in a clear light, we may take an analogy from the history of the natural sciences. The whole group of natural sciences as they exist to-day were at one time nothing more than subjects of investigation and research, and they stood if not absolutely outside of, certainly in no intimate relation whatever to, the educational system as such. They were not subjects of instruction in the educational institutions; they were not instrumentalities or means of educational training. They formed the subject-matter of investigation on the part of isolated scholars; men sometimes, it is true, who were professors in universities, but men who were compelled to carry on their investigations largely outside of the university, because of the non-recognition given by the university system to these subjects. They were above all, topics for an academy, in the sense of a body of investigators who, without any necessary relation to the educational system of the country, were carrying on their various researches into these and other subjects. We find that after a while the natural sciences, as they became more distinctly differentiated, as the number of people interested in them increased, as the results of investigation and research in the respective fields became more valuable, passed into the universities as a part of the curriculum, as a part of the means of instruction, as an essential element in the educational system itself. They became in the first place, in



the universities on the Continent, not merely subjects of investigation and research, but also means of giving a professional training to people whose future vocations and pursuits were based upon a knowledge of the content of these subjects. Thus, in the universities, they became of importance in connection with a training for a medical career, with the training for an agricultural career in a large way; they became, in a word, the basis of professional instruction in the schools. This remained for a long time their sole function. But, as their content increased, as the bounds of knowledge were pressed ever farther into the region of the unknown which surrounds mankind, they began to have a reflex effect upon the cultivation of all branches of learning, even those which like philosophy and grammar and literature had stood most completely outside of all relation to the development of these subjects. They began to influence in a most profound way the attitude of students and investigators in every other department of human science. It soon became evident, as a result of this development, that natural science had come to have a new relation to educational problems. The time had come when this new relation was to be realized by a change in educational methods, in educational curricula, and educational machinery and organization. Natural science became a recognized element of general training, a recognized element in the culture of the educated man. It was thus passed down into the sphere of secondary training, and in the first place, in this country, in what might be called the upper part of secondary training, namely the college.

The opposition offered to the introduction of this element into our educational system was so prolonged, so severe and so bitter, and the progress for a time seemed so slow, that many men despaired of the time ever coming when the proper claims of this department of human knowledge should be recognized. And it is interesting to note that the establishment of the American high school side by side, and for a

time out of connection with the college, was one of the most efficient instrumentalities in the introduction of the natural sciences, as a means of education and training. The high schools beginning under auspices and under conditions which put them to a certain extent in antagonism with the colleges, tried from the very first to assign a large part in their scheme of education to training in natural science. Those of you who have followed the history of this movement know well under what discouragements it was carried forward, and even within ten years it has been possible to hear distinguished college presidents, and distinguished college professors, declare that natural science is not a proper subject of instruction for pupils in the high schools; that natural science should be reserved, if not for the post-graduate student, at least for the college student in the last year or two of his course. But the logic of events has been too strong for such mediæval theories of education, and so far from being content with the introduction of instruction in the natural sciences into the lower grades of colleges and into the upper grades of high schools, the effort is now making to carry down instruction in these subjects through all grades of schools, even into the very kindergarten. The wisest and most progressive educators are standing to-day for the introduction of the study of natural science, under the term nature study, into the very lowest grades of our schools. We are beginning to recognize that the study of the external world about us is not only valuable as a means of intellectual discipline, but that no education can be complete, no education can be well rounded, no education can be natural and in harmony with the conditions under which human beings must live and grow, which does not from its very beginning incorporate as an essential element the systematic study of the great world of nature about us. It is not merely a question of information about botany, or zoology, or geology, it is a question of the mental attitude of the individual, of the generation, of the race, one may

say, toward all problems which confront it. There is no doubt that when this instruction has become an essential part of every grade of our school work, we shall have a new, a higher, a better developed scheme of education than we have thus far elaborated. The notion that the study of things must be preceded by the study of words, or that the formal training of grammar and philology and philosophy, and the formal training in æsthetics which we may obtain from literature, must precede a study of nature which was the idea of the old education, and continues to be the policy upon which our educational system, as a whole, is based at present—I say such an idea must give way before the sounder view that the study of nature is fundamental and elemental, that just as from the very beginning the child comes in contact with nature in his unconscious education, so he should come into conscious contact with nature when the period of his conscious education opens. Nature study, then, will not follow, but will accompany; and if there is any question of precedence, will probably precede, the kind of education and training characteristic of our educational system up the present. Thus nature study has become, or is becoming, an essential part of every grade of our education. So, I believe, will social study in the same way become an essential and necessary part of every grade of our systematic education.

This development will, in my opinion, occur, because, in the first place, of the importance of these subjects and studies to the welfare of modern society in general, and especially to the welfare of modern free societies, of which ours is a type.

Human society, for the first time in history, is coming to itself, is becoming conscious of definite ends and purposes toward which it is striving; of the possibility of setting up certain ideals toward which it can ever struggle. It is reflecting upon its own constitution, the ends and purposes of its own existence, as never before. I do not mean to say,

of course, that there have not been men in preceding ages who have reflected upon these important and fundamental problems of human existence. The philosophers of Athens and Rome, the leaders of mediæval and early modern thought, concerned themselves with these questions to a very considerable extent; but the number of people who are interested in these subjects to-day is so enormously greater than ever before, the belief of modern society in the possibility of self-improvement and ultimate perfectibility is so much more vivid than at any preceding period in the life of humanity, that we may fairly say we have entered upon a new era in this respect. Now it does not take a reflecting society or community very long to come to the conclusion that the possibility of attaining to such ideals as it may set before itself turns among other things upon its own knowledge of the underlying principles of social organization, of the tendencies and forces at work in social, political, industrial and commercial life. These questions are destined, therefore, to receive an ever-increasing attention. The sciences devoted to these subjects must therefore increase and not decrease, must wax and not wane, must be multiplied and not diminished.

One may object to this argument from the philosophic point of view that human progress in social, political and industrial lines is very largely unconscious; that human beings secrete institutions as bees do honey; that the part which the individual or the generation, or the sum total of individuals or generations, have in determining by conscious volition the progress or discipline of human society is so infinitely small as to minimize to the lowest point the importance of all such considerations as I am advancing. It will be pointed out that at no period in the history of the world has anyone been able to prophesy the lines along which human society would develop. At no period in the history of the world has anyone been able to point out the direction in which subsequent development would take place. Indeed,

some people even say that the effort of every generation is devoted to undoing the well-meant efforts of former generations which were directed toward accomplishing certain definite ends under the impression that along that line lay the hopes of human progress. They will call attention to the fact that the Athenian, who saw the former power depart of his beloved city, which to him stood as the very eye of Greece and all the world, as the very light of the world set upon a hill, no matter how wise, no matter how philosophic, he might be must have felt that the end of the world had indeed come when the Macedonian legions encamped at the foot of the Acropolis and the sceptre passed forever away from the Athenian democracy. Yet this even, so far from marking the end of Athens and the end of Greek culture, was only the beginning of its influence over a large part of the known world; an influence which shows itself in countless directions in the Orient even down to the present day. How much more completely must he have felt that the end of Greece had come when the Roman eagles were carried into every separate valley and planted upon every separate hill-top in his beloved land! And yet the final subjugation of Greece by the Romans marked not the end of Greece, Grecian influence and Grecian civilization, but the very beginning of the widest and most permanent sphere of influence ever opened to that wonderful people. The western world to-day is at every point different and better because of the fact that Greece existed, and Greece was enabled to exercise this influence by virtue of the fact that the Roman people, by their military and political genius, brought to the civilization of Greece an agency and instrumentality through which it could project itself into the unborn centuries, and through which it could set its stamp upon all generations which followed it.

You will remember how Cicero and Cato, and the men of their type in the last days of the Roman republic, thought that the end of the Roman state had come, that civilization

was to be swallowed up in a despotism or barbarism, and the sun of Roman genius was to be obscured by a never-ending night. No philosopher of that day could have seen that the end of the Roman republic was in reality the beginning of the life of Rome, that from the very days of Julius Cæsar was laid the foundation of that empire of law, of organization, of civilization, which makes Rome an ever-living and ever-present force in every village and hamlet of the civilized world to-day.

How could any man have seen in the dark days in which the Roman Empire was overthrown, and the wild barbarian hordes poured down over southern Europe from the north, when the light and life of letters and science and culture seemed to have been extinguished once for all, how could any man have seen or believed that all this was simply the beginning of a new era which should throw far into the background in material and moral advancement, the most glittering achievements of the human race up to that time? As a result of this circumstance, that in this field prophecy is perhaps impossible, that a shaping of ends to results seems to be difficult, it has happened that in all the great eras of human history many of the best and purest and most upright minds of the time have been enlisted in the support of institutions, and the support of policies, the very destruction of which was necessary to the next stage in world advancement. This is the irony of fate, surely the tragedy of history, that, owing to our ignorance on these subjects, we may be struggling and striving all the time with all our energies to maintain institutions, to preserve policies fundamentally opposed to the truest and best interests of mankind, properly understood.

There is a certain justification in this point of view. It is difficult to give a thoroughly satisfactory answer to it, and yet for our purpose possibly the briefest answer is the best. We are impelled by an inner necessity, if we work at all, to work toward ends, if we strive at all, to strive toward



ideals. We are compelled to select the best we know and to direct our efforts in the wisest way we know to these ends, and certainly, if there is anything in human science, or human knowledge, the fuller and more complete our knowledge becomes, the more accurate and the more satisfactory must our prevision become. We are driven by this inner necessity, before referred to, as moral beings to select an end not merely for ourselves, but for the society of which we are a part, and to put forth our best efforts, based upon our best knowledge to the accomplishment of such an end. The cultivation of these sciences, therefore, which have as their function, investigation into the nature and constitution of human society, must assume an ever-wider and more important place in our society.

But there is a special reason why these subjects must acquire an ever-increasing importance to us in the United States of America and ultimately to all other modern nations. We have adopted a theory of government quite opposed in some respects to that underlying any other great political organization, and based upon what is essentially and fundamentally a very different state of society from that which has characterized any nation in which similar experiments have been tried. We are trying to-day to govern a great political community upon the theory and principle that every man, and perhaps before long every woman, is a political expert, entitled to have an opinion upon all political questions, and upon all social and economic questions which may become political, and in this age of the world, there is scarcely any economic or social question which may not also become political. In doing this we are flying not only in the face of all political history, but also in the face of some of the most fundamental principles of our modern social and industrial organization itself. If there is any one principle which we may say characterizes the modern industrial system more than another, it is that of the division of labor, it is that of setting aside in our body

economic and body industrial, either by force of law or more commonly by force of circumstances, or of will of the individuals—I say it is the setting aside of certain people to perform exclusively certain social functions, resting the welfare of our body economic upon the final harmonious out-working of all these different occupations. We are not content with having a maker of boots, but we divide the business of making the boot into twenty-five or thirty different occupations in each of which certain individuals occupy themselves, one may practically say, for their entire lives. We set aside the business of curing people by the administration of drugs to a peculiar class in the community known as physicians, and we prosecute anybody who undertakes to prescribe without having the recognition of the community which is involved in the right to practice medicine. We set aside certain people for the cultivation of the law and others for the cultivation of theology.

Yet, in strange contrast to all this, we make the business of politics, the business of governing and ruling the state, the business of controlling by the power of the state, the lines along which human society shall develop—we make this, or attempt to make this, the business of everybody. We undertake to say in theory, if not in fact, that one man's opinion upon these subjects is as good as another; that the average man and woman in our society has sufficient knowledge and skill and understanding, or is sufficiently under the dominion of people who have the knowledge, skill and understanding to make it practically a safe thing to entrust the control of this most important of all businesses to the common man. No other country has ever attempted this. No other country attempts this to-day; at least no other country which may be for an instant compared in population, in wealth, in the complexity of its social and industrial problems to the United States. No country in the ancient world ever tried such an experiment.

The Athenian tried the problem of such government on a

small scale, but he was careful to limit the number of people who might take part in this government in a very narrow way, feeling that no man could take part intelligently in governing who did not have an opportunity to prepare himself especially for this sort of work. The whole organization of the state was ultimately made to conform to the condition that the individual Athenian citizen should be put in a position to post himself upon political problems, upon political ideas, and upon political notions, upon political policies in such a way as to be entitled to an independent and intelligent judgment upon the same. To do this, however, it was necessary that the great mass of the people should be abject slaves, to the few citizens, for only in this way could the latter secure the requisite leisure and time to study and understand these grave, political problems. The state went even further, recognizing that no man could attend to the business of earning a living and yet be entitled to have that kind of an opinion which the theory of the Athenian state implied he must have, unless he were a citizen of wealth and resource; the state provided that the citizen should be paid for the performance of his political duties. This was not as it is sometimes depicted, a degeneration in the world of politics. It was an absolutely essential outgrowth of the whole theory and practice of the Athenian government.

The same thing was true of the Roman state. It was a mere handful of people whose material and economic welfare was based upon the plundering of the rest of the world, upon whose shoulders was placed the management of the Roman state. The average Roman could take part in the political management of the Roman Empire because and by virtue of the fact that he had at his disposal practically a sufficient number of slaves to support and take care of him while he gave his attention to politics.

The government of England to-day is in the hands of what may be called governing classes, people whom the entire mass of the community look up to as entitled, *par excellence*,

by their training, by their financial resources, by their hereditary connections, to the work of directing the political policy of the state.

In Germany, which has been the scene of many struggles between the government on the one hand and the so-called representatives of the people on the other, the average man is still of the opinion that in the case of a dispute between the king and the commons, which to his mind is the case of a dispute between the king and his neighbor Rhoderick Schmidt, whom he may have helped to elect to the House, and whom he knows to be a merchant or a farmer, like unto himself—I say, in case of such a dispute, the average man sides with the king, because he says, “It is his business to govern, and he knows more about this matter than my neighbor, good fellow though he is.” In other words, nearly all other countries are still conducting their governing on the plan that there is a certain class in the community set apart by heredity, by wealth, by social position, to have the controlling and governing voice in shaping the political policy of the society.

We have thrown that theory overboard entirely. We have perhaps gone to the other extreme, and it looks sometimes as if we considered that intelligence, and wealth, and social position were absolute disqualifications for the kind of service we expect of our representatives. At any rate, we have put into our representative bodies in many instances, poverty, ignorance and corruption, villainy and crime itself.

We are proceeding, then, in our government to-day upon the assumption that the average man is not only a patriot, is not only upright and honest, is not only desirous of doing the best he can, but that he is also an expert in the business of governing, or at least, in a position to pass upon the work and proposals of those who are actually doing the governing. How can our government succeed unless we realize this assumption by training each individual for his duty as a citizen?

The subject-matter of these sciences, then, being of such fundamental importance to modern society in general and our own American society in particular, I think there is little doubt that it must assume a new relation toward our education. It must become the subject-matter of instruction in all grades of our educational system. I do not think it is possible for any great department of human learning which is of fundamental importance to the intellectual, moral, political and social training of the mass of the people to remain forever entirely outside of all connection with education. Just as the great field of natural science has been seized and its results exploited, so to speak, by educators for the purpose of the intellectual and moral training of all members in our society, so I believe the subject-matter of the political and social sciences will be utilized in the same way by our educators, in as extensive and fundamental a way.

I may venture to make one other remark before I pass from this aspect of the subject. Modern pedagogy emphasizes the fundamental necessity of the element of interest on the part of the child who is to be educated in the subject-matter of his instruction before the best results can be accomplished. It is a principle of wide and ever widening application. We cannot hope to work out the best results in a political way through the machinery of the modern free state unless every individual in that community becomes thoroughly and profoundly interested in political questions as such, and I am using that term "political questions" in a large sense, as questions in regard to which a politically organized society may be required to have a positive policy. Now I do not think that it is possible to develop this interest in any large way in the masses of the people, unless the conscious consideration of these questions be taken up as an integral part in all grades of our educational system.

We can only make the average man an expert in political matters by rousing his permanent and fundamental interest

in political things. Men will give their time and thought and feeling to things in which they become profoundly interested, about which they are deeply concerned. One of the great justifications for the introduction of natural science into all grades of our schools is to be found in the desirability of interesting the average individual in our society, in the world of natural phenomena about him. We ought to bring him to see in the flutter of every leaf upon a tree, in the flight of a passing bird, in the roar of the waves of the seashore, in the growth of the daisy at his feet, in the silent sweep of the stars above his head, a fact of interest and moment to him, the consideration of which will lift him out of himself and up into the higher sphere of intellectual effort and usefulness. I do not believe that he can get this interest, at least not in any large numbers, unless our educational system is directed toward producing this interest in him, toward bringing this sort of thing into relation with the things in which he is already interested, toward giving him an appreciation for these interesting and important natural phenomena.

The same thing is true of the phenomena of our social life. Our laws, our institutions, our economic and social and industrial relations are full of the most interesting phenomena, offering the most valuable material for thought and reflection and study, the consideration of which will lift the individual man and woman out of the narrow round of the routine duties characteristic of the ordinary life up into the larger sphere of communion with the great thoughts that have made our world for us, and with those larger thoughts which have made the universe in which we live. If we can get this interest for these things, we shall find an increasing attention and an increasing devotion to these subjects on the part of every man and woman in our society, but to do that I think these subjects in some form must be brought to the attention of our children as systematically and as regularly as nature itself is brought to them, in the best integration



and by the best presentation which modern educational methods can give.

Thus far, I have dwelt upon the desirability of utilizing the subject-matter of the political and social sciences as means of instruction in our schools from the point of view of their importance to our social welfare. It seems to me that the certainty of a more extensive utilization of this same subject-matter for educational purposes may also be based upon what may be called the pedagogical or educational availability of these sciences as means of instruction from two points of view, what may be called the purely disciplinary or liberal training, and what may be called the informational or special training. I would not wish to be understood as divorcing these two considerations; they are really not two distinct qualities of these subjects, but rather two aspects, two sides of the same thing. I think it is not too much to say that the tendency in modern pedagogy at present is toward recognizing a similar or equal value for the purpose of training and instruction in nearly all branches of human science. The old idea that a liberal education can only be obtained from an extensive study of the classics, that strength of mind and purpose can only be derived from a detailed study of mathematics has disappeared along with many another equally defective notion as to the pedagogical nature of various disciplines and branches of knowledge. I do not know that it would be fair to say to-day that there is a consensus of the best opinion in favor of the view that all subjects of study are of equal educational value, but certainly the tendency of modern philosophic and pedagogical thought has been steadily in the direction of recognizing the truth of this principle in regard to an ever-increasing number of subjects. Human science is becoming so large in its scope, so multiform in its variety, that no one man can hope to master even the rudiments of it in the course of a single lifetime. We must, if these different departments are to be adequately cultivated, look forward to an ever-increasing specialization

in many directions, and it would certainly be an unfortunate outlook for the race, if this increasing specialization were to be accompanied by decreasing discipline of the human mind.

Now the subject-matter of the political and social sciences from whatever point of view it may be considered offers most valuable material to the educationist. No one who has studied political economy, as it is set forth in the great treatises on this subject, can help realizing that the mastery of the line of argument adopted in economics must result in mental development just as surely and as truly as does the mastery of propositions in geometry. No one can take the trouble to understand the celebrated proposition of John Stuart Mill, "that a demand for commodities is not a demand for labor," without feeling that he has made as definite and as distinct an advance in his power to grapple with abstruse questions as would have been occasioned by the mastery of a difficult proposition in Euclid. If the general public, if our clergymen and our newspaper writers, understood this proposition and what it means—a proposition which may almost be called the *pons asinorum* of economic students, we should certainly be spared many of the elaborate and misleading expositions by our newspapers and other so-called leaders of public thought upon the subject of luxurious expenditure. The notion that the expenditure of hundreds of thousands of dollars upon an evening's entertainment is productive expenditure of wealth in a narrow economic sense would not commend itself to anyone who understood the proposition referred to.

John Stuart Mill's theory of international trade; his presentation of the subject of rent, of wages, and many other similar topics as discussed by him and subsequent writers, to say nothing of the refinements of the Austrians, offer an abundance of material for purely disciplinary or formal training; material which, while quite as difficult and obstinate as mathematics or logic, has the great advantage of appealing to some types of mind as of far more interest than mathe-

matics, and is consequently for those particular persons, a better material for formal or disciplinary training than the latter.

The same thing is true of politics in the form of constitutional law. No youth can master the line of reasoning pursued by the great jurists, who have developed a theory of constitutional law based upon our constitutional system, without feeling new virtue come into him, without experiencing a new sense of power, without undergoing a real process of development. Education has been defined by some one to be "a development of the power to draw distinctions." And the power to understand and appreciate the distinctions which our jurists have drawn in the process of elaborating the set of constitutional principles upon which our system of state and federal government rests can only be the result of a serious and valuable discipline.

Aside from this mental discipline, this formal training, which in an eminent degree may be made the accompaniment of such studies, they have the additional value of imparting information relating to the conditions of life under which the modern citizen is placed which cannot be without its effect in interesting the individual in these social, political and industrial problems, which face our modern state. And if, with this formal training, we can secure this interest, we shall have gone a long way toward laying the foundations for an intelligent and useful citizenship. The highest value of these subjects from this point of view, from the point of view of the formal or disciplinary side is perhaps attainable only in our high schools, or in the upper grades of our high schools and of similar institutions. But the youth or maiden of sixteen or seventeen can grapple with and understand some of these problems which I have indicated, in such a way as to derive very great benefit from the pursuit of these subjects.

If the line of thought thus far adopted is a sound one, it is evident that we are face to face with the important problem

of the adjustment of this branch of instruction, of this department of human science in our educational system to the other branches of instruction in the various grades of our educational scheme.

While I cannot go in any great detail into the discussion of this question, there are some salient points so important that they cannot be passed over without at least a cursory notice. The term university in our modern educational system is coming to be applied to the great system of professional schools whose curriculum is based upon an extensive secondary training. It includes a complex of medical, law, divinity and philosophical faculties, comprising under the latter head the so-called advanced or graduate work in pure science which is made the basis of special training for people who are looking forward to an academic career. The university in the true sense is an institution organized for a twofold purpose, that of promoting original investigation and research, that of widening the bounds of human knowledge, and secondly of furnishing a specific professional training based upon the utilization of the highest results of human science for this purpose. Now in this department of our education certainly the political and social sciences must assume a most important part, and with every passing year a more important one. As subjects of study and investigation, they certainly may lay claim to a fair share of the attention of these great foundations, organized for the promotion of human science. There is, moreover, an increasing number of callings in the community, proper preparation for which would certainly include a period of study of these subjects. As our civil service becomes more thoroughly developed in this country, as our standard of efficiency and our ideas of what a civil service system ought to be in a great country like this rises, we may be sure that a professional training looking toward qualifying people for these important and difficult positions will certainly be required. There will come a time when we shall expect an American consul to be a man who knows

something of industry and trade and commerce, who has some knowledge of the inter-relations of the great industrial and commercial machinery of the modern world; when we shall expect the men who are at the head of the important departments in our municipal governments and of the important departments in our national and state governments, to have some expert knowledge of the subject-matter underlying the administration of their offices. When that time comes, the universities must offer special professional instruction looking to these places, based upon the political and social sciences. Certainly the great business of managing and directing the newspaper in the modern world is another department of life in which the presence of experts in these subjects is absolutely essential, if these so-called leaders do not become mere blind leaders of the blind. Surely the men who make politics a business, and draw up our laws for us, and shape our administration, ought to be men with knowledge of these subjects, such as at present they have not. When we do come to require this knowledge, the place to obtain it will be in the university under the leadership of men who make the study of these things and instruction in these things their life work. These departments are, therefore, in connection with our universities, bound to increase and multiply, to be developed and expanded, and made more serviceable for the important function which they are destined to fulfill.

There are not wanting signs that this development has already begun. Our great universities in this country have in the last twenty years begun to make more or less adequate provision for the cultivation of these subjects. In no place is it at present adequate; in no place is it at present more than a mere beginning; in no institution has more than a fraction of the effort and time and money been devoted to this department of human knowledge which is given to natural science.

I may note here, that the question of the suitable or-

ganization of this instruction in the university is a mere matter of detail; and yet it is not by any means an unimportant matter of detail; on the contrary, it may have the most profound effect upon the manner in which our whole educational scheme may develop. Thus, if we organize the political and social sciences in such a way that that they can be set over as a group of social sciences against a group of natural sciences, we may be very certain that they will be more adequately cared for, than if, grouped together under one head, or one science, they be set over against some one division of the natural sciences, like chemistry or physics. It is interesting to note that for some time in this country there was a tendency to recognize this co-ordinate position of the political and social sciences, as over against the natural sciences. And we had the school of political science, organized in Columbia in 1881, for just the kind of advanced work which I have been describing; we had the school of political science organized at Cornell, at Michigan and at Wisconsin. The only place in which the organization was fairly well carried out was at Columbia, and there are not lacking a good many signs at present of a determined attack upon this claim of the political and social sciences to be considered as a group of equal importance and equal dignity with the natural sciences, or with the historical and philological sciences. The question will probably ultimately be decided by the final development and arrangement and organization of the sciences among themselves, and I am free to say that, in my opinion, we have no indications at present which enable us to determine what that final classification of the sciences is to be. There are tendencies at work in political economy which would reduce it to a mathematico-physical science, others which would hold it in its present relation to the moral sciences. There are tendencies which would reduce politics to history, and others which would reduce history to politics. There are claims that economics is the basal science of all social



sciences, etc. The arc of the circle is not as yet sufficiently large to enable us to determine the size of the circle, or indeed whether it is a circle at all, whether it may not be an ellipse, or possibly a parabola or an hyperbola. But for the present, the immediate problem before our universities from this point of view is the relation of this group of subjects to the old historical subjects of university instruction, history, grammar, and philosophy on the one hand, and to the newer subjects grouped under the head of natural sciences on the other. As said above, the question is by no means unimportant. In our modern universities, for example, a certain sum of money is set aside for the purchase of books, which is to be divided up among the departments, and according as this group of subjects constitute one department, or is broken up into several distinct departments, will it receive a small, or, in the aggregate, a large proportion of the total available funds of the institution. The money may be divided more and more among the various departments of the institution which are to be developed and, according as these subjects are grouped as one department, or broken up into a number of departments, will they obtain a small or, in the aggregate, a large proportion of the university's revenue. In the University of Pennsylvania senate, for example, this whole group of subjects, is represented by one man, while the field of natural science, pure and applied, is represented by six or seven men, and the field of the old subjects by as many more; language itself being represented by no less than three. In Columbia University this group of subjects has a position and a dignity which secures for them a much larger share of university attention and university support than in the University of Pennsylvania. In the University of Chicago, out of some fifteen departments organized with head professors, three are assigned to this general field, but it is interesting to note that the number in the field of natural science is steadily increasing, and from all present indications will soon far

outweigh the relative position at first assigned to the social sciences. Those of us who believe that these subjects represent a large and vital portion of human science must exert our efforts upon all occasions, and in all legitimate ways, to secure for them their proper and adequate attention, even in what seems to be the small matter of university organization.

The relation of the political and social sciences to what may be called secondary and college education is no less important than that to the great field of professional or university training. The condition of higher education in the United States is at present in many respects so chaotic that it is difficult to classify sharply and draw the line between what is professional, what is higher, what is secondary and what is elementary. But leaving to one side all such education as may be considered professional, whether it be given in the upper years of a college course, or in the strictly graduate years of university work, let us turn our attention for a moment to what may be called preparatory or secondary work, such as is involved in the high school curriculum, and in the first two years of our most advanced colleges. Calling all that work secondary, therefore, which comes after the elementary school and prior to the professional work of the university, what is the relation of the social and political sciences to this department? The number of people who attend the universities in any country is very small. The average condition or height of education in a country at large depends to a far greater extent upon the number of people who may take this liberal or disciplinary training, which is characteristic of secondary education. And the effort has, of course, been made to extend and invigorate this branch of our education in the United States, but thus far without that marked success which we might hope for. As a result of this we find that a large proportion of persons who are taking the so-called professional education of the university, that in law, medicine, theology, have not taken

this preliminary or secondary work, but have gone directly from the elementary school into the professional school. There are many different causes which have conspired to bring about such a result, but prominent among them certainly is the fact that within a comparatively recent date our colleges and universities threw the whole weight of their authority in favor of the view that there was only one road to the higher education, that through the study of the classics and mathematics, and that no one could claim to be cultured who had not spent years of his life in the pursuit of what we sometimes call the formal sides of culture. A great epoch came in the history of education when the adherents of natural science succeeded in establishing a college curriculum based upon the study of the natural sciences as the old classical curriculum had been based upon the study of the classics and mathematics. When this second road was opened to higher education, it was found that a vastly larger number of the youth of the country desired a liberal or disciplinary culture, than had desired, or had been willing to take it through the medium of the old training. We are face to face to-day with the necessity of opening up still other roads to this same end of a liberal and general culture, to cast up still other highways than those which rest upon the classics and the natural sciences. One road in our view lies certainly through the study of the social sciences. A liberal curriculum may be laid out having for its nucleus the great field of social science, the study of man in his political and economic institutions, which shall be as valuable as either of the other courses. With this is indicated our view as to the relation of the political and social sciences to this problem of secondary education, at least from one point of view. We must work out a secondary curriculum based largely on these subjects.

The University of Pennsylvania made the first movement in this direction, in the establishment of the Wharton School of Finance and Economy, some fifteen years ago. As this

experiment was the first, so it has remained the most successful of the kind up to the present time. It is not destined to remain without imitation and without a profound reflex influence upon the course of college education throughout the country. The president of the University of Chicago has announced that a department with similar ends and aims and with similar methods is to be opened in that institution, as soon as the requisite funds are forthcoming. The plan has received the assent of all the academic authorities, and is simply waiting for the financial support necessary to its inauguration. The University of California, that wonderful institution, one of the most remarkable in the United States, is at work at present upon a similar project which it is believed will be launched within a year or two. I have no doubt myself that the establishment of such a curriculum in every one of our great institutions would be attended by another large increase in the number of those young people in the community who aspire after a higher education, but who are not attracted to the study of either the classics or natural sciences as at present conducted.

The considerations which I have thus far adduced relating to the college, or higher, secondary curriculum, apply with equal force, it seems to me, to the high school or lower secondary curriculum. Everyone is aware, who has followed the history of the public high school in the United States, that it has begun to influence very profoundly the attitude of the colleges upon the subject of popular education. The high school was the first constituent part of our secondary educational system which insisted that training in the natural sciences, being universal in character, ought to enter into all grades of our education; that secondary education must not be devoted to the mere study of grammar and mathematics, while the study of all other branches of knowledge should be deferred until the close of the period which the average child could devote to education. It insisted that natural science must become a constituent part of the

education of the high school, and high school curricula have been worked out based largely upon training in natural science. I do not doubt but that we must work out exactly the same kind of a problem in connection with instruction and training in the social sciences. And there are not wanting signs at numerous places in the country that so-called commercial high schools are to be developed, whose curricula will be based to a very large extent upon the subject-matter of these same political and social sciences.

We now come to the third and last of my propositions, in regard to the relation of our education to the subject-matter of the political and social sciences, and that is that our elementary schools must also make a place in their curricula for the elements of these subjects, which we have been discussing. The period of elementary education is perhaps not altogether as clearly defined as one might wish, but for our purposes, I should take as the period suitable to elementary education the school life up to thirteen or fourteen years of age, the time at which the pupils in our public schools are ready for the high school, the period usually covered by the compulsory school laws, the period which, roughly speaking, has come to be pretty generally accepted as extending from the sixth to the fourteenth year. It is in this period that the question of the relation of these sciences to the general training for citizenship in a republic becomes of special importance. If every man, and possibly, in course of time, every woman, in our society is to be called upon to take an active part in the work of governing, or of passing upon the success with which other people govern, or to have the privilege of passing judgment upon the adoption or rejection of great questions of public policy, it would seem to follow as a matter of course that every citizen ought to have some specific and special training to prepare him for this important duty. Now the number of young men or women who enter our high schools or our colleges, or our universities is very small indeed. If we are to do anything effective in this

direction, we must begin with the boys and girls in those institutions of our school system in which the great majority of them are to be found, and they are the elementary schools.

It is not necessary, I presume, at this time to enter upon an elaborate argument in favor of the view that there is need for a more general, a more fundamental, a more satisfactory training for citizenship in our society than we have at present. We need only to look about us to see ample evidence that our society, political, social, economic and industrial, is suffering from a thousand and one defects which would be remedied if our sense of civic duty were quicker and our knowledge of civic relations more ample and thorough. The tendency to sacrifice the public interest to private interest, the shameless betrayals of trust in our city and state governments, the outrageous exploitation of the weak and unfortunate by the strong and unscrupulous, the combinations of the rich and the poor to plunder the public at every possible point, are such common phenomena of our social and public life in every direction that they have almost ceased to attract public attention. Now the training for citizenship necessary to bring about a new state of things in these respects is, of course, an extremely broad one. It implies that training for citizenship, which comes as a result of all the complex forces of life in a free state, which work together to make or to mar the character of every citizen in it. The training in the family, in the school, on the playground, in the church, in business, in politics, in all the various relations of life, goes to make up that complex resultant, the good, or the bad citizen. The only point I care to urge in this immediate connection is that specific instruction in the nature, constitution and relationships of human society in its political aspects, should be a part, indeed, an important part, a part which has been hitherto overlooked and neglected, in this great and comprehensive process of developing the intelligent and conscientious citizen. A man is a citizen by virtue of the fact that he lives in society, that



he must enter into social relations with a vast number of human beings in immediate or remote proximity to himself, and according as he bears himself in these relations wisely and conscientiously or the opposite, will the outcome of human society be a blessing or a curse. We have to develop, of course, a social consciousness in the child as it grows up through the family, and the school, and prepares itself to emerge into the wider relations of political and industrial society. And if we can only develop the right social ideals in the child, can only develop the right mental and moral social attitude in the youth, we need not be afraid of the result, for society, government, politics bear the same relation to these social ideals, these social standards, these social views, that the fruit or the blossom bears to the bud or the seed. If we can get the right attitude and the adequate knowledge in the green tree, the dry will surely take care of itself.

I am not sure that I have sufficient knowledge of the curriculum, of the difficulties and possibilities of elementary instruction in our schools as they exist, to outline in any satisfactory way exactly what form this specific instruction in the elements of political and social science shall take, in order to secure the highest social results. But I am sure that the burden of working out this problem rests upon the school teachers and the university experts alike, and it can only be solved by their persistent co-operation. Just as it has taken two generations of work on the part of our elementary school teachers, on the one hand, and of our scientists on the other, to prepare the subject-matter of the natural sciences to become a mental pabulum for the children in our elementary schools, so it may possibly be another generation or two before this same problem can be worked out for the political and social sciences; but it is my firm belief that worked out it must be if our social progress is to be as continuous, as rapid, as our social welfare demands.

I do not mean by this, of course, that it is necessary to

introduce into the lower grades of schools systematic subjects of instruction which we shall call politics, and economics, or sociology. But certainly from the very earliest life of the child in the school, to the last day he continues in it, the management of the school itself, in all its relationships, in the classroom, on the playground, etc., ought to be such as to tend steadily toward developing the social instinct and the social attitude which will finally blossom into the fruit of perfect citizenship. In what manner in connection with this unconscious training specific instruction in the constitution of government and society, and in their relation to the citizen and the citizen's relation to them may be introduced, I cannot undertake to say at present. That is a practical problem of school pedagogics. But I am inclined to think that it may be done much earlier than is at present supposed, and I am convinced that every passing year will demonstrate even more imperatively than our past development has already demonstrated, the necessity of beginning this instruction as early as possible.

The practical solution depends on the hearty co-operation of layman, school teacher and university professor, and to this work the interest of modern society summons us all alike.

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## THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRUSSIAN RAILROADS.

WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE ADJUSTMENT OF  
RAILWAY RATES.

The necessity of comparative studies in the various natural and social sciences is an accepted fact. It has come to be well understood that the institutions of other countries must be known before we can thoroughly understand those of our own. This is certainly no less true of railroads than of other institutions. While our railroads may often have been culpably managed, it is equally true that at times they have been most indiscreetly dealt with by some of our legislatures, arousing popular prejudices, which are as unjust and injurious to sound enterprise as they are unfounded in fact. A study of a foreign system of railroads should aid us in gaining an accurate knowledge of the nature of railroad enterprises. It should reveal those tendencies which are inherent in the business and those which are distinctly due to administration. It should diminish criticism and make critics more discriminating and judicious. In spite of excellent civil service and greater prudence in legislation, Prussia during the reign of the "railroad king," Dr. Strousberg, developed railroad problems essentially like those which led to the institution of the Interstate Commerce Commission in this country, and which prompted much of the restrictive legislation in our states.

Prussia began with general, our states, with special legislation. Prussian theory placed railroads in one category and ordinary businesses in another. We have until very recently insisted upon their essential similarity. Prussian railroad history establishes the soundness of the first and the fallacy of the second theory. Continental Europe recognized the dangers of *laissez faire* in the railroad business much earlier than America.

An objection which the student of foreign institutions frequently meets, especially if he is inclined to suggest improvements in our own institutions along lines which he has found acceptable in those of other countries, is that the "conditions" are so different there that the experience of those countries is not applicable to our own. No intelligent person would deny that conditions may differ, and that neither theory nor practice can be sound which takes no cognizance of them. It would be folly to neglect the attitude which certain nationalities habitually take toward public affairs generally, especially in matters concerning administration and legislation. Measures which the Germans might placidly accept might make a nest of rebels of Americans within twenty-four hours, and *vice versa*. But let the student place in one column things in which, for instance, Prussia and the United States are essentially alike, and in another those in which they differ, and the result will surprise him. Speaking generally, it is safe to say that the great manufactures and trades manifest universal rather than national characteristics. Economic and social conditions are everywhere becoming more and more alike. A universality, rather than nationality, of conditions is the much safer hypothesis under our present industrial régime. It should no longer be permissible to dismiss valuable experiences of other countries simply because of the alleged differences in conditions.

The railway charters of Europe and America were largely influenced by English experience. The Liverpool-Manchester Railway charter was based upon the earlier English canal legislation, and the general law of Prussia was constructed upon the same model. The charters granted by our state legislatures reveal almost at a glance their common origin in English law. Granted, as many of them were, by legislatures composed of frontiersmen, they show a frontiersman's intolerance of restraint, and many of the restrictive clauses and reservations contained in the early English and Prussian

laws were shaken off as the charters were carried westward. The struggle in Parliament over the Liverpool and Manchester charter centred about the preamble, which set forth in detail the desirability and justification of the enterprise. In Prussia, a memorial, required by law, performs the same functions. In several of our states, bills praying for railroad charters contained a preamble not unlike that in the English bill. With the downfall of the custom of incorporating preambles in our charters, and of deliberating over them, an element of wholesome restraint was lost, especially in the conspicuous absence of general legislation in most of our states, during earlier years. What the continuance of this custom signifies, Prussian history illustrates. Survivals of this custom are found in a Maine law, which requires a "petition" giving information on specified points, and in the New York, Massachusetts and Connecticut acts which require railway companies to satisfy the railway commissions or the courts, of the public "utility" of the railroads for the construction of which charters are desired. Prussia was more systematic at the beginning than we were.

A single test will impress us with the planlessness of our earlier and most of our later railroad charters. Take early charters granted by legislatures of a dozen different states, cut these into slips each of which shall contain a single provision, put the slips containing similar provisions into the same box, shake the boxes, take one slip from each box—although all the way from one to a dozen boxes may be left untouched without affecting the result!—and by rearranging the slips held in the hand, without paying particular attention to their order in detail, a charter will have been constructed which in all essentials is as perfect as many of the earlier charters granted by the legislatures of any one of the northwestern—and no doubt also of other—states. Let any one who doubts this analyze twenty-five or fifty charters.

The prudence with which Prussia began her railroad building and the evils from which such a policy saved her has its

lessons for us to-day. The following sections will show a part of the Prussian system, and that part which to me seems to be the most valuable, at least from an economic point of view.

*The Relation of the Federal Government to Railroads.\**

There is only one federal railroad in Prussian territory—a short military road from Berlin to the shooting grounds at Zossen. In the eyes of the Prussian law this is a private road. There are federal railroads in Alsace-Lorraine which were acquired after the Franco-Prussian war. A number of these have been leased by the empire to Prussia. Though the federal roads took the lead in drawing into their council advisory bodies like those treated of in a subsequent section, and while the system of rates in existence on these railroads at the time they were acquired contributed an element toward the formation of the present mixed system of rates or "reform tariff," as it is called, which is in effect on all German roads, the importance of federal railroads can hardly justify further treatment of them in the present essay.

The constitution of the new German Empire, of April 16, 1871, confers upon the federal government extensive powers over all the railroads in the Empire. No German railroad, whether state or private, whether located in Saxony or in Prussia, or any other German state except Bavaria, which secured special concessions in the constitution, can withdraw from the active or potential power reserved in the imperial constitution. These powers may conveniently be grouped under five heads:

1. The right to legislate, which, in a sense, includes all the others.
2. The right to grant concessions.
3. The right to control rates.
4. The right to supervise the building, operation and administration of railroads.
5. The right to employ the railroad for the national defence.

\* Portions of this and the two following sections, about one half of their contents, have previously appeared in a paper by the author on "The Adjustment of Railway Rates in Prussia," published by the Wisconsin Academy of Sciences, Arts and Letters.



The federal constitution makes it the duty of the government to cause the German railroads to be managed as a uniform network in the interests of the general traffic. This phrase, "as a uniform network," is an elastic one, and probably would suffice to give the federal government most of the powers it exercises; yet, nine articles of the constitution are either wholly or in part devoted to the subject of railroads, embracing matters pertaining to construction, equipment, operation and repair. These articles declare that the government shall strive to introduce a uniform system of regulations for the operation of all German railroads, and a uniform system of rates; that it shall strive to secure the greatest possible reduction of rates, especially for long hauls of articles supplying the wants of agriculture and of industry, such as coal, coke, wood, ore, stone, salt, pig-iron, fertilizers, etc. In times of distress and famine the emperor, on the recommendation of the railroad committee of the *Bundesrath*, a standing committee required by the federal constitution, may temporarily fix rates for the transportation of the necessities of life, provided that such a reduction shall not reduce rates below those charged on the respective railroads for the transportation of raw material. These constitutional provisions have been well carried out, for the German railroads *are* operated as a system, and their system of rates and of regulations has developed a high degree of uniformity. The emperor has not yet been called upon to exercise his special prerogative during times of distress because the railroads have voluntarily met the needs of such times. The constitutional provisions have been supplemented by ministerial rescripts, royal orders and statutes, and together they form a complete system of responsibility and of control.

*Important Provisions of Prussian Railroad Law.*

The most important and the most commendable feature of the Prussian system, when we consider it from the point of

view of the service which it performs and which it can be made to perform for the public, seems to me to be the advisory bodies which will be discussed later. It would be impossible, however, to understand and to appreciate their full significance without a knowledge of the general characteristics of Prussian railroad law.

In the first place, we should note the classification of Prussian railroads, since the duties and privileges of railroads in their relation to the general public and to the government vary with the class to which they belong. Prussian railroads are classified as:

- |                              |   |                        |   |  |
|------------------------------|---|------------------------|---|--|
| A. State<br>or<br>B. Private | } | Which may<br>be either | { | 1. Primary ( <i>Haupt- or Vollbahnen</i> ).<br>2. Secondary ( <i>Neben- or Sekundärbahnen</i> ).<br>3. Local ( <i>Kleinbahnen</i> ).<br>4. Private branches ( <i>Privatanschlussbahnen</i> ).<br>5. Isolated private roads "not operated by machines," |
|------------------------------|---|------------------------|---|--|

Objectively considered there are no important differences between primary and secondary railroads. Primary roads correspond somewhat to our trunk lines. Both primary and secondary railroads have tracks of normal width, and use similar cars and engines. They differ in equipment, as the secondary railroads have fewer and slower trains, and a smaller percentage of brakes to axles. The two classes are subject to different operating regulations and to different laws in their relation to the post-office, the adoption of rate schedules, etc. The law of November 3, 1838, which is the fundamental railroad law of Prussia, recognizes only primary and secondary roads. Local roads, legally created by the law (*Gesetz über Kleinbahnen und Privatanschlussbahnen*) of July 28, 1892, are not "railroads" within the scope of the law of 1838, and hence not subject to the provisions of the general railway legislation. *Local railroads are placed in the same category with ordinary businesses*, and as such are subject only to ordinary trade regulations. If, however, at any time,

in the opinion of the *Staatsministerium* a local road attains such a degree of importance in the public traffic that it may be regarded as a part of the *general* network of railroads, the state may, on the payment of the full value of such a railroad, and after one year's notice, add it to the state system of railroads. The fourth and fifth classes have no significance for the purposes of this paper. Any recent railroad map will distinguish at least the first two classes.

It has already been stated that the fundamental railroad law of Prussia is the law of November 3, 1838. In all its essentials it is the law of to-day. It grew out of the discussions and negotiations on the first applications for "concessions" or charters, especially out of the careful investigations and statesmanlike considerations preceding the granting of the Magdeburg-Leipzig charter, which in turn was based upon "*Grundbedingungen der Erlaubniss zu öffentlichen Eisenbahnen durch Privatunternehmungen*" (Fundamental conditions for permission to build public railroads by private enterprise). By this law, the state, acting through the minister of public works, has the right, after the expiration of three years from the first of January next following the opening of the road, to supervise, approve or disapprove, (1) all tariff schedules, (2) any proposed change in existing rates, and (3) the establishment of tariff instructions and regulations, special and differential rates. However, the three-year limit is practically void because of the reservations which the state makes in granting concessions.

The granting of concessions has from the first been surrounded by wholesome restrictions. The law aims to fix responsibilities and duties in every instance. It requires the company to furnish proof of the usefulness of the proposed enterprise before its application can receive attention from the authorities. It must furnish reliable statements concerning the capacity of the territory through which the road is to pass to support a railroad, and to give reasons for the choice of a route. It must furnish objective

proof of its ability to meet all the requirements of the concession. This involves not only sufficient capital to build and equip the road, but also the ability to operate it successfully. The proposed railroad must be technically practicable. It must neither frustrate nor make more difficult other and more useful enterprises. It must be permissible from a military point of view, and, above all, it must serve public interests. These preliminary requirements having been complied with, the detailed plan is subjected to an examination by the president of that circuit (*Regierungsbezirk*) in which the central office of the proposed railroad is located. This examination considers primarily private and local interests. All the changes which are brought up for consideration in the course of this examination, whether agreed to or not by the parties interested, are submitted, together with the plan, to the minister of public works. By the latter it is sent to the war office for a special examination with reference to military interests, while mechanics and builders examine the technical details of the plan. The final examination is made by the minister of public works, who pays special attention to the project as a whole in its relation to the entire system of railroads. If he finally approves the project, he recommends it to the king, through whose order the concession is finally granted. The power of the minister of public works does not cease with the grant of the charter, but continues during the period of construction and during the entire life of the road.

The building of state roads, being an attribute of sovereignty, does not require a concession. The building of a private road involves two elements: legal privilege and enterprise, or "undertaking." In the case of state roads only the latter element is involved. In other words, the building of a railroad by the state is purely an act of administration. But before this administrative act is exercised the most rigid and comprehensive investigations are made, which are in general like those indicated above in case of private

railroads. Were we to trace the development of the Prussian system we should find that most of the railroads have been built from social and economic considerations, although political and military considerations have at times been predominant factors. It is absolutely untenable, however, to maintain, as is sometimes done, that Prussia makes her railroads a military and a political machine. Certainly these elements may be discovered in the history of Prussian railroads, but one may unhesitatingly say that if there is any system of railroads in the world which truly and effectively serves all the interests of a nation, that system is the Prussian.

We have already noticed three powers of the minister of public works over railway rates. They apply only to primary roads. Secondary roads may, during the first eight years of their existence, raise or lower rates to meet their own desires, provided they do not go above a certain maximum prescribed by the minister for that period of time; and provided further, that their rates do not conflict with the general principles of rates enforced on state lines. But in no case can these concessions invalidate the general supervisory right of the state. The rates on local roads are provided for in the law of July 28, 1892, as follows:

"The authority upon which the approval of the project devolves is required to make an agreement with the owner as to time-table and rates, and the periods of time in which such agreements shall be subjected to revision, provided that the owner may be allowed to establish his own rates during the first five years, and that thereafter the state shall only fix maximum rates, in doing which due consideration shall be given to the financial interests of the road."

The law reserves to the state this power, but it does not make it a duty; and it is the policy of the state not to interfere with any arrangements the owner may see fit to make, provided he neither practices unjust discriminations nor does anything else contrary to the interests of the public. The law simply reserves to the state the right to act if circumstances require it.

The publicity of rates is adequately secured in Prussian law. All railroads—state or private, primary, secondary or local—are required to publish their rates under the supervision of the same authorities that fix them. Such publication includes all tariffs—passenger (which are also printed on the tickets), freight, local, through rates, terminals, incidental fees, etc. Not only the bare schedules, but also the rules and regulations governing their application, as well as all changes which have been made in them, must be published. Every advance in rates must be published, together with the old rates, at least six weeks before they can take effect. Reductions likewise require the consent of the proper authorities and must be published. Any deviation from published rates is prohibited, and every person has a right to insist upon a computation of the price of transportation on the basis of rates properly published, and no other. Any violation of these regulations may be punished in the ordinary courts of law. During the last decade there has been a tendency to shift points of dispute more and more from the administrative department over to the regular channels of the civil courts. Paragraph 35 of the law of 1838 names the minister (then the minister of trades and industry) as the authority that shall decide disputes between railroads and shippers arising out of rate-questions. The motive which led to such a provision was that this official was best fitted to give right decisions, but with the growth of the railroad system, and with the later development of the courts of justice, the opinion gained ground that the administrative department should be released from the judicial duties imposed upon it by section 35 of the law of 1838. Legislation of 1876 and 1883 was aimed in that direction, and the law of April 1, 1890, transferred all claims arising out of rate-questions to the ordinary courts of law for redress.

In our discussion of the direct administrative organs it will be necessary to pass over the older organization. On



April 1, 1895, the Prussian railroad administration was completely reorganized. Previous to that time there had existed two distinct official bodies, or "resorts," immediately below the minister of public works. The latter was then, and is now, the executive head of the railroad administration, and the two bodies subordinated to him were known as *Eisenbahndirektionen* and *Eisenbahnbetriebsämter*, respectively, the one having direct charge of the operation of the railroads and the other performing purely administrative functions. Of the *Direktionen* there were eleven, and of the *Betriebsämter* seventy-five. The functions of both of these have now been consolidated in the royal state railroad directories, of which twenty have been created, with their seats at Altona, Berlin, Breslau, Bromberg, Cassel, Cologne, Danzig, Elberfeld, Erfurt, Essen, Frankfurt a. M., Halle a. S., Hannover, Kattowitz, Königsberg, Magdeburg, Münster, Posen, St. Johann-Saarbrücken and Stettin. Each directory is composed of a president, appointed by the king, and the requisite number of associates, two of whom, an *Ober-Regierungsrath* and an *Ober-Baurath*, may act as substitutes of the president under the direction of the minister. Each directory has complete administrative control over all the railroads within its limits, although the subordinate civil administrative organs of the state, such as the *Oberpräsident*, *Regierungspräsident* and *Landrath* have certain powers in the granting of concessions, police regulations, etc. The directory decides all cases arising out of the action of special and of subordinate branches of the administration; and, representing the central administration, it may acquire rights and assume responsibilities in its behalf. The directories may be characterized as general administrative organs, one of whose great functions is the proper co-ordination of all the parts of the railroad system.

Below and subordinated to them are special administrative organs, upon whom falls the duty of local adaptation and supervision. There are six classes of these local

offices, and their names indicate in a general way their functions: operating, machine, traffic, shop, telegraph, and building offices or *Inspektionen*, as they are called. Shortly before the new system went into operation the minister of public works issued special business directions for each class of offices. The contents of each of these ministerial orders may be grouped under three heads: (1) the position of the office in the railroad service; (2) its jurisdiction in matters of business; (3) general provisions. To give a detailed analysis of the functions of the local offices is out of the question here. It should be added, however, that all phases of the service, whether from the point of view of the railroads or of the public, are carefully provided for. Thus one of the foremost duties—"die vornehmste Aufgabe"—of the local traffic office is to maintain a "living union" between the railroad administration and the public. For this purpose the chief of the office is in duty bound, by means of numerous personal interviews and observations, to inform himself concerning the needs of the service in his district, to investigate and to remedy complaints and evils without delay, and to take such measures as will secure the most efficient service. It is also one of his duties to inform the public concerning the organization and administration of the railroads, so as to avoid idle complaints. This single provision in the rules governing one of the local offices illustrates the spirit of them all.

Private railroads, which before April 1, 1895, had been supervised by a special railroad commission, are now subject to the jurisdiction of the president of a directory and his alternates. This was another step toward greater unity in the system. The directories upon whom the supervision of the private roads devolves are those at Altona, Berlin, Breslau, Cassel, Cologne, Elberfeld, Erfurt, Essen, Frankfurt a. M., Halle, Hannover, Königsberg, Magdeburg, Münster, St. Johann-Saarbrücken and Stettin. As there are twenty directories, and only sixteen supervise private railroads, it is

evident that jurisdictions for private roads are not identical with those of directories. Nor does each directory have an equal number of miles of private or state roads within its jurisdiction. This depends largely upon the geographical distribution of the railroads and upon the intensity of the traffic. Thus, the Berlin directory supervises 587 kilometers of state roads, while Halle has 11,884 kilometers. The other directories lie between these two extremes. It may be added that on April 1, 1895, the private roads represented together only 2200 kilometers (not including *Anschlussbahnen* and 71 kilometers rented to private parties) against 27,060 kilometers\* of state roads, of which 10,479 kilometers contained two or more tracks.

All Prussian railroads, then, whether state or private, are subject to the jurisdiction of a carefully graded administrative system—local, intermediate and central—each part of which is connected with every other part in such a manner that, without interfering with the ability to act promptly in cases of emergency, every act not only finds its responsible agent, but the central organ can also make its influence felt in the remotest branch of the system, and at the same time not transcend its responsibility to the public.

*Advisory Councils and other Bodies.*

Whether we regard the interests of the railroads and of the public as identical or not, there are certainly times when harmony between the two does not exist. This may be due to the failure of each to understand the other, or to some wrongful act which one of them may have committed. Whatever the cause, if such circumstances do arise, any organ which can promptly and prudently remove the friction performs an admirable service in the interests of public traffic. Such an agent is found in Prussia in the advisory councils and other bodies which co-operate with the legally responsible parts of the railroad administration. These

\* Increased to 27,911 km. by the close of 1896.

councils are created by law and are required to meet regularly for the purpose of co-operating with the state administration upon all the more important matters pertaining to the railway traffic, especially time-tables and rate-schedules.

The first German advisory council was organized in the federal domain of Alsace-Lorraine. Through an impulse given by the chamber of commerce of the city of Mülhausen, a conference between the representatives of the chambers of commerce of Alsace-Lorraine and the general imperial railroad directory at Strassburg was held at Mülhausen on October 21, 1874. Organization, composition and functions of the council were agreed upon during the first session. Originally its membership was confined to the chambers of commerce of Alsace-Lorraine, but later representatives of the various agricultural and industrial bodies were also admitted. All matters falling within the domain of at least two chambers of commerce could be brought before the council.

The proceedings of this conference made such a favorable impression upon the federal railroad commissioner that he attempted, although without immediate success, to induce the other German railroads, both state and private, to assist in this movement toward a closer union and a better understanding between the commercial and railroad interests, by instituting similar councils. The circular letter of the commissioner, addressed to the railroads on January 11, 1875, is one of the most significant steps in the development of the councils.

"This arrangement," says the letter "primarily strives to establish an intimate connection between the places entrusted with the administration of the railroads and the trading classes. It will keep the representatives of the railroads better informed as to the changing needs of trade and industry and maintain a continued understanding between them; and, on the other hand, it will impart to commerce, etc., a greater insight into the peculiarities of the railroad business and the legitimate demands of the administration, and consequently, by means of earnest and moderate action, it will react beneficially upon both sides through an exchange of views."

This statement sounds the keynote of the whole movement. For a time the railroads were not very ready to respond, and the movement made little progress until the policy of the state to purchase private railroads was about to be inaugurated. The Prussian *Landtag* made its approval of the first bill for the nationalization of railroads dependent upon certain *wirthschaftliche Garantien* (economic guarantees) which it demanded of the government. A resolution to this effect was adopted by the *Landtag* in 1879. The minister of trade and industry had already taken active steps during the previous year. In 1880 a bill embodying the motives of the resolution of the *Landtag* was introduced, and after having undergone various changes and modifications was approved and published as the law of June 1, 1882.

Prussia was thus the first, and, up to the present time, is the only, country in which advisory bodies of this nature were placed upon a legal basis. The law is entitled *Gesetz, betreffend die Einsetzung von Bezirkseisenbahnräthe und eines Landeseisenbahnrathe für die Staatsbahnverwaltung*. As the name indicates, it creates a class of advisory boards or councils known as *Bezirkseisenbahnräthe* (circuit councils), and one national council, called *Landeseisenbahnrath*. The national council is the advisory board of the central administration, and the circuit councils of the railroad directories. Since the reorganization of the railroad administration, April 1, 1895, eight circuit councils have been in existence, with their seats in Bromberg, Berlin, Magdeburg, Hannover, Frankfurt a. M., Cologne, Erfurt and Breslau. It will be remembered that there are twenty directories, so that a circuit council serves as an advisory board for more than one directory. The national council is composed of forty members, holding office for three years. Of these, ten are appointed and thirty are elected by the circuit councils from residents of the province or city, representing agriculture, forestry, manufacture and

trade, according to a scheme of representation published in a royal decree. Of the appointed members, three are named by the minister of agriculture, domains and forests; three by the minister of trade and industry; two by the minister of finance; and two by the minister of public works. An equal number of alternates is appointed at the same time. Direct bureaucratic influence is guarded against by the exclusion from appointment of all immediate state officials. The elective members are distributed among provinces, departments and cities, by the royal order to which reference has just been made, and both members and alternates are elected by the circuit councils. The presiding officer and his alternate or substitute are appointed by the king. In addition, the minister of public works is empowered to call in expert testimony whenever he may think it necessary. Such specialists, as well as regular members, receive for their services fifteen marks (about \$3.60) per day and mileage.

The national council meets at least twice annually, and deliberates on such matters as the proposed budget, normal freight and passenger rates, classification of freight, special and differential rates, proposed changes in regulations governing the operation of railroads and allied questions. It is required by law to submit its opinion on any question brought before it by the minister of public works; or, on the other hand, it may recommend to the minister anything which it considers conducive to the utility and effectiveness of the railroad service. Its proceedings are regularly submitted to the *Landtag*, where they are considered in connection with the budget, thus establishing "an organic connection" between the national council and the parliament. In this way the proceedings are made accessible to every one, and an opportunity is given to approve or disapprove what the council does, through parliamentary representatives. The system is one of reciprocal questioning and answering on part of the minister of public works, the national council and the parliament.



The circuit councils are equally important and interesting. Since January 1, 1895, nine of these have been in existence. Their membership, which varies considerably with the different councils, was fixed by the minister of public works in December, 1894. Any subsequent modifications which may have been made have no bearing on what we are considering here. At that time the council at Magdeburg had only twenty-four while that at Cologne had seventy-five members. The nature of their composition can best be illustrated by presenting an analysis of the membership of one such council. The council of Hannover, comprising the railroad directories of Hannover and Münster-Westphalen, seems to be a fair type. In that council we find one representative from each of the chambers of commerce of Bielefeld, Geestemünde, Hannover, Harburg, Hildesheim, Lüneburg, Minden, Münster, Osnabrück, Ostfriesland and Papenburg, Verden and Wesel; one representative from each of the following corporations or societies: Society of German Foundries in Bielefeld, German Iron and Steel Industrials in Ruhrort, Craftmen's Union of the Province of Hannover, Branch Union of German Millers in Hannover, Union of German Linen Industrialists in Bielefeld, Society for Beet Sugar Industry in Berlin, Society for the Promotion of Common Industrial Interests in the Rhine Country and Westphalen, in Düsseldorf, and the Society of German Distillers in Berlin; four representatives from the Royal Agricultural Society in Celle; three from the Provincial Agricultural Society for Westphalen in Münster; one from the German Dairy Society in Schladen and Hamburg, the Society of Foresters of the Hartz, the North German Foresters in Hannover, the Union of Forest Owners of Middle Germany in Birnstein, and from the Society for the Promotion of Moor Culture in the German Empire; and, lastly, one from the Society of German Sea-fishers in Berlin. This one illustration is probably sufficient to show the thoroughly representative character of the circuit

councils. If a circuit comprises railroads covering territory of other German states, the chambers of commerce, industrial and agricultural societies of such territory may also be represented in the council. The minister of public works has power to admit other members, and frequently does so when the nature of the questions upon which the council deliberates makes it desirable. Thus, at a meeting in which the rates on coal and coke—to be noted hereafter—from the Rhenish mining districts to the seashore were to be considered there were present an *Ober-präsident* accompanied by an assessor, a deputy of a *Regierungspräsident*, a *Landrath* (these three are civil administrative officers presiding over a province, circuit, and department, respectively), a representative of the Upper-Mine-Office at Bonn and at Dortmund, of the Royal Mine Directory at Saarbrücken, of the Royal Railroad Directory at Hannover, of the Dortmund & Gronau & Enscheder Railroad Company (private), in addition to the regular representatives and voting members.

The circuit council, as has been indicated above, stands in a relation to the railroad directory similar to that of the national council to the minister. The law makes it mandatory upon the directory to consult the circuit council on all important matters concerning the railroads in that circuit. This applies especially to time-tables and rate-schedules. On the other hand, the council has the right, which it freely exercises, of making recommendations to the directory. In case of emergency the directory may act according to its own judgment, independently of the council, but it is required to report all such cases to the standing committee of the council and to the council itself. This provision supplies the elastic element which enables the railroads to meet momentary wants. The standing committee of the council is an important body. It meets regularly some time before the full council holds its sessions, and its proceedings form the basis of the deliberations in the council. The committee receives petitions, memorials and

other communications. The bearers of these are invited to appear before the committee and to advocate their cause. Questions are asked and answered on both sides, and after all the arguments have been presented the committee votes upon the petition or request, usually in the form of a resolution adopted by majority vote recommending the council to accept or reject the demands made in the petitions. The action of the committee is reported, on each question, by a member designated for that purpose, to the full council at its next session. While the decision of the committee is usually accepted by the council, it in no way binds that body. Before the council meets each member has an opportunity to examine the arguments presented before the committee and the facts upon which its decisions are based. If the advocates of the petitions before the council present new evidence, or if the recommendations of the committee are shown to be unsound, the council simply reverses the decision of the committee. Of the nature of these petitions I shall speak later.

These advisory councils have spread into Bavaria, Saxony, Württemberg, Hesse, Oldenburg, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Austria, Italy, Russia, Denmark, Roumania, and, in a much modified form, into France. An examination of the councils in these countries shows the same principle underlying them all: *the representation of all the different economic interests in the conduct of the railroads*. In composition and organization they are much alike. They owe their existence, however, not, as in Prussia, to law, but simply to administrative orders. In Switzerland there are no real advisory councils, but the public is represented by the regular civil, commercial and industrial organizations. These submit memorials to the Department of Railroads and Post. The wishes of the public as to the time and frequency of trains are presented regularly twice each year by the cantonal governments. The railroad department then calls a joint session of the representatives of the cantons and of the

railroad companies, where these questions are considered. In passing, we may notice, among civilized nations, the absence of England and of the United States from this list.

There are still other bodies which, although not created by law and not confined in their activity to Prussia, have long exerted a powerful influence throughout the empire. Foremost among these stands the *Generalkonferenz* (General Conference). Under its guidance the modern German system of rates, called *Reformtarif*, has been systematically developed. The general conference meets annually, and discusses matters relating to tariffs, fees, operating regulations, etc. Thus, at a recent meeting the conference disposed of no less than fifty-three different items, relating mostly to the classification of goods and the adjustment of rates, all of which, as in case of the circuit councils, had been previously considered in subordinate bodies whose deliberations lie at the basis of the proceedings in the general conference. It is composed of members representing all the German railroads, and votes are distributed according to the number of miles of road the members each represent, and the total number of votes increasing, of course, with the growth of the German system. At the meeting referred to, the total number of votes was 322, of which 51 were not represented. Of these 51, 28 belonged to roads having 1, 10 to those having 2, and 1 to those having 3 votes. The Prussian state railroads had 139 votes, the Bavarian state railroads 28, those of Saxony 16, the state roads of Alsace-Lorraine 11, the state roads of Baden 10, and so on down; the remainder representing the smaller state and private railroads. These figures show the predominating influence of Prussia in the conference.

Bodies subordinate to the general conference have already been alluded to. These are the *Tarif-Kommission* and the *Ausschuss der Verkehrsinteressenten* (Tariff Commission and Committee of Those Interested in Transportation). The tariff commission is a standing committee whose members

represent Prussian state roads, two Swiss roads, and one of the railroads of Mecklenburg. It meets three times a year, and occupies itself with petitions and other communications from shippers. The committee of shippers (*Verkehrsinteressenten*) is composed of members representing agriculture, trade and industry; and some of the matters brought before it are previously discussed by a sub-committee. Both of these bodies occupy themselves almost exclusively with freight rates and matters immediately connected with them. Out of twenty-three items brought before them during a two days' session in 1893, twenty-two were deliberated upon in joint session, although each body voted separately. The discussions in these sessions are so thorough that the recommendations made are, in the great majority of cases, approved by the general conference. Those conclusions of the commission which are adopted in the form of a declaratory statement become binding upon members unless protests are made. Subjects discussed in the conference and commission may, and frequently are, brought before the councils.

Among the various railway traffic, and rate-unions which might be mentioned, none have exerted an influence on rates at all comparable to that which has been exercised by the Society of German Railroad Administrations. Founded as a Prussian society in 1846, it became in quick succession a national and an international organization, embracing the railroads of Germany, Austria, Hungary, Roumania, Luxemburg, Holland, Belgium, Bosnia and Russian-Poland. Both state and private railroads are eligible to membership. A series of eight standing committees covers the special branches of the service, and if extraordinary matters arise they are referred to special committees. Questions upon which the society is to act must be published at least three months preceding the meeting. The proceedings have long been published in an official paper, and, through custom, exert a powerful influence. The attainment of uniformity, in construction and other matters, has been one of its great

aims. In Europe the necessity for international uniformity is much greater than with us, and in the domain of freight traffic this has been well attained by means of an international treaty, signed at Berne on October 14, 1890, by diplomatic agents from Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Luxemburg, Holland, Austria, Hungary, Russia and Switzerland. It is officially known as the "*Convention internationale sur le transport de marchandises par chemins de fer.*"

The history of this international agreement dates back to 1874, the same year that Mülhausen inaugurated the movement which led to the institution of advisory councils. In that year two Swiss citizens, residents of Bâle, directed to the governments of the surrounding states inquiries concerning their willingness to enter into an international freight treaty. Drafts of such a treaty were worked out in both Germany and Switzerland, and discussed in a congress at Berne in 1878. This congress submitted the draft of a treaty to the different governments for examination. Many objections were raised and improvements made. Further conferences, dealing also with questions of technical uniformity, were held in 1882 and 1886, and on October 14, 1890, the draft approved by the third congress, was formally drawn up as a treaty and approved. The original treaty has been modified and supplemented in various ways, partly by agreements among all these countries, and partly by agreements among several of them. Every three years, or sooner, if one-fourth of the treaty-making states demand it, a general congress must be called together, to consider improvements in the agreement.

As its name indicates, the Bernese treaty applies only to international freight traffic. Excepting articles, the transportation of which is regularly monopolized by the post-offices of the contracting states, the treaty governs all shipments of goods from or through one of the states to another. It provides for uniform through-bills of lading, prescribes routes for international traffic, fixes liability in cases of delay



and loss, prohibits special contracts, rebates, and reductions, except when publicly announced and available to all, and prescribes certain custom-house regulations. Not the least important feature of the treaty is the creation of a central bureau, organized and supervised by the Swiss *Bundesrath*, with its seat in Berne. The duties of the bureau are five:

1. To receive communications from any of the contracting states, and to transmit them to the rest of them.
2. To compile and publish information of importance for international traffic, for which purpose it may issue a journal.
3. To act as a board of arbitration on the application of the countries concerned.
4. To perform the business preliminaries connected with proposed changes in the agreement, and, under certain circumstances, to suggest the meeting of a new conference.
5. To facilitate transactions among the railroads, especially to look after those which have been derelict in financial matters. After notice has been given by the bureau, the state to which the railroad belongs or by whose citizens it is owned can either become responsible for the debts of the road or permit the expulsion of the road from international traffic.

The expenses of the bureau are met by contributions of the contracting states in proportion to mileage.

The original agreement provided that any of the states might withdraw at the end of three years, on giving one year's notice. No such notice has ever been given. Any violation of the treaty can be punished in the courts, and a judgment having been rendered in one country, the courts of the others are bound to assist in its execution, unless the decision conflicts with their own laws. But so far as the question of fact is concerned there is no appeal, and a German court is bound to accept the findings of a court in France. Germany, Austria, Hungary, Russia, Switzerland and, to a less extent, France have embodied provisions of the international code in their internal code, thus leading to unification beyond the limits of international traffic. To what extent the Bernese treaty may influence other phases of the national and international law of the states of central

Europe cannot well be foreseen. That states differing widely in forms of government, geographical position and commercial interests have voluntarily made themselves amenable to a common code of law under these circumstances, again impresses one with the great power and many-sided influence of railroads, and the healthy development of closer international relations. The code is binding for a domain embracing nearly three millions of square miles and two hundred and sixty millions of people. It ranks in importance with the international postal, telegraph and copyright unions.

*Proceedings of Advisory Councils.*

The leading features of the Prussian railroad administration relating to rates have now been presented. It remains to illustrate by means of a few sidelights from the proceedings how a part of the machinery acts. To convey a somewhat detailed view of the workings of the administrative organs directly concerned with the operation of the railroads would unduly extend this paper; besides, it would be a little technical and not essential from the economic point of view. So we shall content ourselves with a brief account of some of the deliberations of the advisory and other bodies directly occupied with questions about rates. We shall save time by first obtaining a general idea of the German system of rates, for which purpose a rough summary of the German Reform Tariff is here given.

*German Tariff Scheme.*

1. Fast freight by the piece.
2. Fast freight by the carload.
3. Piece goods.
4. General carload class A1, in shipments of at least 5000 kg.
5. General carload class B, in shipments of at least 10,000 kg.
6. Special tariff A2, in shipments of at least 5000 kg.
7. Special tariff I, II and III, in shipments of at least 10,000 kg.

The rates and what pertains to them are officially published in volumes not unlike our monthly magazines. This tariff

scheme was first introduced in 1877, and through the influence mainly of the general conference it has become gradually more unified. It is obvious that the price of transportation of a good becomes less as it falls into a class farther down the list. The general carload classes include goods of higher value not enumerated in any of the special tariffs, while the special tariffs I, II and III embrace less valuable goods—their value falling by degrees—so that, generally speaking,

Special tariff I includes manufactured goods.

Special tariff II includes intermediate products.

Special tariff III includes raw materials and bulky goods of small value, such as certain waste products of gas factories, tanneries, paper factories, slaughter-houses, etc.

Special tariff A2 is for goods belonging to special tariffs I and II in consignments below 10,000 and above 5000 kg. Goods belonging to special tariff III, but weighing less than 10,000 though at least 5000 kg., are transported at the rates of special tariff II. Then there are special rules and rates for such things as explosives, precious metals, vehicles, timber, fish, bees, meat, carrier doves, etc. Questions as to classification and the transference of goods from one class to another often arise. Here is a typical case:

The chamber of commerce of Lennep, a Rhenish city, petitioned the general conference to transfer manufactured horseshoes—"raw hoof-irons" the Germans say, but which will here be designated simply as horseshoes—from special tariff I to special tariff II. A prominent business firm brought the question before one of the railroad directories, and from there it was carried before the minister of public works. The minister consulted the permanent tariff commission and the committee of shippers, and finally the question was brought before the advisory councils.

The petitioners asserted that the manufacture of horseshoes was a new industry, which, after many costly experiments, had only recently gained a firm foothold; that the

trade had been gradually growing, especially with the East, and that consignments had been sent to Russia, Italy, Austria and other countries. In domestic trade, the use of these horseshoes had been promoted by military authorities and street car companies, because it lessened cost and relieved the blacksmith of much purely mechanical work. It enabled him to do better work more cheaply and with greater uniformity. The charge that it hindered the education of skillful blacksmiths was untrue.

Extensive statistical tables were introduced to show that the life of the industry depended upon the desired change in rates. Horseshoes were subjected to the same rates as fine iron and steel goods, while they properly belonged to intermediate products in special tariff II. Many of the factories were unfavorably located, and it was one of the highest duties of the state to promote industrial activity in regions which lie away from the great channels of trade, if it could be done without too great a sacrifice on part of the public. The desired concessions on part of the railroads would do this. It was unjust for the representatives of the Saxon state railroads to assert, as they had done in the tariff commission, that the change in the classification of horseshoes would benefit the Rhenish industry only. Particularistic designs should not be suspected in a movement which was deeply rooted in economic necessities. The representatives of the Bavarian railroads had considered fiscal reasons only, but these alone could not be decisive. It would not be business-like for the state, in order to gain a temporary advantage, to sacrifice the very source of this gain. The railroads would fare worse with high rates and a stagnant industry than with lower rates and a prosperous industry, and it was safe to assert that the desired change would, through an increased output, ultimately yield a greater income to the railroads. The established system of rates would not be prejudiced; besides, when the question of system is balanced against that of the welfare of an industry

the latter should prevail. The nationalization of railroads was undertaken, not for fiscal but for economic reasons.

These were the main features of the petition. The petition, together with the records of previous deliberations on the question, was brought before the standing committee of one of the circuit councils by which the arguments were reviewed and new evidence introduced. Can these horseshoes be classed with rod-iron? Are they an intermediate product? Could not ploughshares and other articles demand a like change? What is the relation of the proposed change to the competition of Swedish iron? Is it true that the manufacture of horseshoes injures the craft of blacksmiths? Will it lead to a wider use of horseshoes and consequently to an improvement of agriculture? Such were the questions which the committee considered, and in response to which evidence of individuals and of societies was presented and subjected to the most rigid examination by specialists of various classes. From the committee the question went, as all questions considered by the committee do, before the full council, by which the report of the committee was reviewed and the horseshoe problem finally disposed of.

In a similar manner both the committee and council deliberated upon a petition of the Agricultural Society of Rhenish Prussia to place street sweepings in the special class with fertilizers, and to reduce rates for shorter distances, because sweepings are used only within from ten to twenty kilometers of the cities. The sweepings, it was asserted, had considerable value for agriculture, but that the difficulty of disposing of them had led some cities, notably Hamburg, to destroy them, thus depriving agriculture of a valuable agent. The composition and value of sweepings were examined and compared with other fertilizers now available, and the probable effect on the use of these considered. At the same session of the committee the change in time-tables for the summer period was regularly considered.

Twenty-eight items were presented by the fourteen different members, involving the time and frequency of passenger trains. All propositions which received a majority vote in the committee were brought, of course, before the full council.

In speaking of the composition of circuit councils reference was made to the question of rates on coal and coke. One of the railroad directories brought before the standing committee of the circuit council a question first submitted in a petition of the chamber of commerce of Bielefeld and subsequently endorsed, either in part or entire, by other organizations. The petition sought a temporary suspension of rates applicable to coke and coal sent from the Rhenish mining districts to the German seashore and to foreign countries. The suspension was to remain in effect until the prices in the coal market should return to a normal level.

In the consideration of this question the railroad directory asked the committee and council to deliver an opinion on each of the following points: (1.) Is the level of prices of coke and coal in the Rhenish-Westphalian district an abnormal one? (2.) How must the prices of coke and coal be constituted in order that their level may be characterized as normal? (3.) Should a permanent or temporary suspension of existing freight rates on coke and coal be recommended in order to effect a reduction of prices within the country? (4.) What markets and what rates come into consideration in case of the temporary or permanent suspension of the rates in question? Shall the rates to foreign countries or also the rates to the seashore be changed? (5.) What will be the probable effect of the proposed suspension of rates with reference to the sale and the price of coal and coke within the country?

In both the committee and in the council this problem was thoroughly dissected. Naturally there were differences. Abnormal prices were thought to be prices which include an element of profit out of proportion to the other constituents



of price. On the one hand, a profit of 40 per cent was shown to exist, which, however, the experts present at once proved to be confined to two specially favored mines. In computations to ascertain the average selling price of coal there was a difference of several marks, which called forth the most rigid examination of the statistics and other evidence upon which the figures were based. The railroad authorities showed that in five years the outlay for coal for locomotives had risen from  $4\frac{1}{2}$  to 7 per cent of their total expenses, while coal was still rising, and the coal men showed that their costs of production had risen because of advances in wages and expenses connected with insurance. It was said that the present low rates for the transportation of coal had been introduced at a time when the coal industry had lain prostrate, and that now all other industries were suffering from the high price of coal, and that this advance in freight rates on coal and coke would check exportation and force down prices at home. A decrease in exportation was deplored by representatives of the German marine. In conclusion, among both the advocates and the opponents of the change the opinion was expressed that there was reason for rejoicing in the thorough airing which this question had received; that it would lead to a better understanding of actual conditions, and that the coal industry would hereafter be more inclined to give due consideration to the condition of other German industries.

We come now to the consideration of a question which, perhaps even more forcibly than what has just been related, illustrates the comprehensiveness and fair-mindedness with which the railroad authorities investigate the problems which affect wide economic interests. It is a petition, submitted by the minister of public works to the national council for an expression of opinion. The printed evidence sent to the council alone covers about 500 folio pages. The problem submitted by the minister to the national council was this: Giving due consideration to the financial condition

and the financial interests of the state, is it conducive to the general economic interests of the country (1) to introduce special reduced rates for all kinds of manures and fertilizers, irrespective of their nature, and, if so, what rates? (2) to introduce special reductions, and to what extent, for the transportation of (*a*) potassium salts—without discrimination or only “raw salts”—and phosphate; and (*b*) lime, in pieces or powdered, used for fertilization?

This was submitted in October, 1893. During March of that year the *Herrenhaus* had passed a resolution requesting the government to introduce reduced special rates for fertilizers, a number of which were specified in the resolution. As stated in support of the resolution, the necessity for it lay in a cheapening of elementary utilities in order to maintain and promote agriculture, and to increase the receipts of the railroad from the traffic with the interior. The same resolution had previously been adopted by the budget commission of the *Landtag*.

In response to this resolution the minister of public works sought information from the minister of agriculture, domains and forests, and all the different agricultural experiment stations as to the occurrence and production of natural and artificial manures in different parts of the country, their price and value in use, and the nature of their application. Various commissions reported on the prices at which different fertilizers could be profitably used on different soils. The agricultural authorities showed where and to what extent these soils existed, and elaborate statistics of the railroads and manufacturers told how much had actually been consumed. In this lay the vital issue—the capacity of the land to absorb profitably artificial manures, and, the ability of the farmer to secure them. The national council said that a simple expression of its appreciation of the great economic significance of the use of both natural and artificial manures was not sufficient, but that an exact and conscientious examination of the effect of

existing rates on the widest and most effective use of these was necessary. The deliberations of the committee of shippers, the tariff commission, the general conference, and the evidence submitted through the minister of public works were all thoroughly sifted by the standing committee of the national council before the case went before the full council for its final verdict.

Marbles, slates and pencils even have been the object of the most serious deliberations of bodies so large and so dignified as the general conference and the national council. A memorial was addressed to one of the railroad directories by the marbles, slate and pencil industry of Thüringen, praying for a detariffization of these articles. The memorial gives a detailed account of the manufacture of marbles, slates and pencils in Thüringen, and points out the places where it meets competition. It gives the cost of production, output, markets, prices and the rates of transportation. The conditions of the laboring population are described, and the probable effect of a change in rates, on their welfare, is analyzed. One may be pardoned for turning aside to state that the laborers there engaged in the manufacture of slates, although exposed to the danger of completely undermining their health, receive often no more than twelve cents for a day's work of eighteen hours. American boys would smile to know that gray marbles sell there for 26.3 cents per thousand, while the polished ones cost about 29.7 cents. The railroad directory to which the memorial was sent addressed a letter of inquiry to the manufacturer of slates and pencils in Westphalia, whose business would be affected by the competition of Thüringen, calling for information on various points relating to this industry. This reply, together with the memorial and supplementary material, was submitted, through the minister of public works, to the national council.

One can not read these documents without being impressed with the sincere desire of the railroad authorities to do justice to all competitors, and at the same time to

make such changes as will better the conditions of people like these laborers in Thüringen. Whether or not the benefits arising from a change in rates would really accrue to these people was most carefully considered. The material submitted for consideration in deciding this question, as in case of the preceding questions, furnished evidence on every point which was raised. The moderation with which the petitions are drafted, the high plane upon which the debates are carried on, the thorough conscientious and judicial-mindedness with which the arguments are balanced in reaching a decision, all manifest a tone not unlike that of the decisions of our best courts of justice.

*Summary and Remarks.*

Prussia began with a general law. In this respect her history is the direct opposite of that of our states. Treating this general law as a nucleus, legislation, royal and ministerial orders and rescripts, and custom have developed two distinct groups of railway administrative organs, each representing distinct sets of interests, yet both working co-operatively. On the one hand, we have a group of organs which represents railroad interests in particular and which take the railroad point of view. The minister of public works, the railroad directories, the general conference and tariff commission and the Society of German Railroads fall into this group, although the two latter stand in a measure on the border line, and of them are none confined exclusively to railroad interests. Legal responsibility is fixed in the first two. On the other hand, we have the national and circuit councils with their standing committees and the committee of shippers. These primarily take the social and economic point of view. They are not legally responsible for the conduct of the railroads, but act as advisory bodies. They represent all the different interests of the nation, and through them every citizen has not only an opportunity but a right to make his wants known.

The marble and slate industry of Thüringen is relatively insignificant, yet of vital importance to the inhabitants of that section of the country. We have seen how complete an examination the petition of these people received at the hands of the highest authorities of the land. A fair and prompt hearing can be denied to no man, rich or poor. The railroads are made real servants. All the administrative, legal and advisory bodies are organically connected with one another and with the parliament. The lines may be drawn taut from above as well as from below. The elaborate system of local offices makes the system democratic, and the cabinet office and the directories give it the necessary centralization. The system presents that unity which a great business requires, on the one hand; and, on the other, that ramification and elasticity which the diverse and manifold interests of a great nation need for their growth and expansion.

In the formation of the councils the elective and the appointive elements are so well proportioned that it is impossible to "pack" any one of them. In this respect, each body is a check on the other. It is easy to reproach the system with "bureaucracy," but to give adequate support to such a stigma would be an impossible task. We need only recall the analysis of the membership of one of the councils. Farmers, dairymen, fishermen, foresters, traders, miners, manufacturers—the long array of human professions have here their representatives. One representative may shape his views according to some particular philosophy of the state. Another will at once restore the balance by presenting the opposite. One member may make extreme statements about some branch of trade or industry. Another will furnish exact information for its refutation. I doubt whether we can find anywhere in the world deliberative or administrative bodies in which the tone and the many-sidedness of the proceedings, the amount and variety of special knowledge displayed, and the logic of the debates present more points of excellence than in these councils and other bodies.

If from the point of view of the railroads nothing should come of these proceedings—a most violent assumption—the information brought together would alone make them invaluable. No investigating committee of congress or legislature ever had such an array of talent in every field at its disposal and under its control as is found in one of these councils or commissions.

It is not my purpose here to present new schemes or to suggest ways and means by which existing institutions of our own country might be modified to perform similar functions. But let me ask whether, if our coal and iron industry, or fruit and cattle raising, or any other industry were to receive an examination like that given to the Rhenish coal and coke industry, many things might not be different from what they now are. Imagine a well-organized assembly whose members could speak for the railroads, for wheat and cattle, for fruit and steel, for forests and for mines, and is it not probable that the effects anticipated in the circular letter of 1875 would make themselves felt also in the United States? Both our railroads and the public have repeatedly gone to extremes because neither understood the other. A system like the Prussian, reveals the railroads to the public and the public to the railroads. It tends to remove blind prejudice and violent measures on both sides. By reflecting accurately the existing conditions, these conferences lead to tolerance, forbearance and mutual concessions. The conclusions reached often have as salutary an effect on industrial situations as suspended judgments of our courts on defendants. It would be difficult to find in Prussia to-day, among the representatives of any class or interest, objections to the entire railroad system which are not relatively insignificant. Both the public and the railroads have gained more and more as the system has developed.

It will doubtless have been noticed that in the discussion of the council proceedings the decisions and their effect were



not stated. It was my purpose simply to show the nature of the councils, and either a negative or an affirmative vote would throw no additional light on the problem. Without a full presentation of local details it could mean little to state that the council voted to place sweepings into the special tariff with fertilizers.

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## PERSONAL NOTES.

### AMERICA.

**Bowdoin College.**—Dr. Henry Crosby Emery\* has been advanced to the position of Professor of Political Economy and Sociology at Bowdoin College. During the past year he published:

"*Speculation on the Stock and Produce Exchanges of the United States.*" Columbia University Studies in History, Economics and Public Law, Vol. VII, No. 2.

**University of Chicago.**—Dr. R. C. H. Catterall† has been advanced to the position of Instructor in History at the University of Chicago. He has written:

"*The Issues of the Second Bank of the United States.*" Journal of Political Economy, September, 1897.

**Dr. Charles Richmond Henderson‡** has been advanced to the position of Professor of Sociology in the Divinity School of the University of Chicago. His recent publications include the following:

"*Methods of Helping the Poor.*" Proceedings of Illinois County Commissioners, 1896. (Also published in Charities Review, February, 1896.)

"*Crime and its Social Treatment.*" Chicago Daily Tribune, June 14, 1896.

"*The German Inner Mission.*" American Journal of Sociology, March, May, July, 1896.

"*Preventive Measures, Educational and Social.*" Proceedings of National Prison Association, 1896.

"*Ethics of School Management.*" Proceedings of Northern Illinois Teachers' Association, April, 1896. (Published also in the University Record.)

"*Voluntary Organization in Social Movements.*" Proceedings of American Economic Association, April, 1896.

"*Christianity and Childhood.*" Biblical World, December, 1896.

"*Development of Doctrine in the Epistles*" (containing a summary of primitive social teachings of Christianity). Pp. 116. American Baptist Publication Society, 1896.

\* See ANNALS, Vol. viii, p. 350, September, 1896.

† See ANNALS, Vol. vii, p. 92, January, 1896.

‡ See ANNALS, Vol. v, p. 274, September, 1894.

"*Principles and Methods of Charity Organization.*" Proceedings of National Conference of Charities and Correction, 1896.

"*Civil Service Reform in Public Institutions.*" Ibid.

"*The Principle of Charity Organization in Towns and Villages.*" Proceedings of Illinois State Conference of Charities and Correction, 1896.

"*Co-operation in Philanthropy.*" The Open Church, 1897.

"*The Social Spirit in America.*" Pp. 350. Meadville, Pa., 1897.

"*Comparative View of American Poor Laws.*" National Conference of Charities and Correction, 1897. (Also published in Charities Review, August, 1897.)

Dr. Frederic W. Sanders has been appointed Lecturer in Statistics at the University of Chicago. Dr. Sanders was born January 17, 1864, in Westchester County, N. Y. His early education was obtained in the public schools of New York City. In 1883 he graduated from the College of the City of New York with the degree of A. B. During the next four years he was engaged in teaching, in editorial work, in the employ of the government, and in studying law. From 1887 to 1891, he practiced law in Rochester, N. Y., and in eastern Tennessee. He then entered Harvard University and engaged in post-graduate work for one year, receiving the degree of A. M., in 1892. The succeeding year he was minister of the Unitarian Church, in Asheville, N. C. He then entered the University of Chicago for post-graduate study, remaining there until 1895, and receiving that year the degree of Ph.D. During these two years he was Assistant Editor of *Unity* and *New Unity*. He was appointed University Fellow in Sociology at Columbia University, remaining there during the year 1895-96. The past year he has lectured for the University Extension Department of the University of Chicago. Dr. Sanders has written the following:

"*Social and Ethical Teaching of Mohammed.*" Quarterly Calendar, University of Chicago, November, 1894.

"*Outline Criticism of Herbert Spencer's Philosophy of the Knowable.*" The Unitarian, February, 1895.

"*Outline Criticism of Herbert Spencer's Philosophy of the Unknowable.*" Ibid., March, 1895. Republished in the Indian Messenger (Calcutta), Vol. XII, No. 13.

"*Islam: Past and Present.*" Arena, June, 1895.

"*A Brief Critical Examination of Herbert Spencer's System of Ethics, with Particular Reference to its Consistency.*" The Unitarian, August, 1895.

"*The Natural Basis of Interest.*" Journal of Political Economy, September, 1896.

**Dr. Francis W. Shepardson**\* has been advanced to the position of Assistant Professor of History at the University of Chicago. He has recently contributed several papers to the *Dial*, and to the *Denison Quarterly* on special subjects in American history.

**Mr. Edwin E. Sparks**† has been advanced to the position of Assistant Professor of History in the University Extension Department of the University of Chicago. Professor Sparks has written the following:

"*Panoramic Historical Writing.*" *Dial*, December 1, 1896.

"*The Preservation of Historical Material in the Middle West.*"

*Ibid.*, April 16, 1897.

"*Certain Methods of Teaching United States History.*" Teachers' Institute, May, 1897.

**Dr. James Westfall Thompson** has been advanced to the position of Associate in History at the University of Chicago. Dr. Thompson was born June 3, 1869, at Pella, Iowa. His early education was obtained in the public schools of New York City, and in private academies at Somerville and New Brunswick, N. J. In 1888 he entered Rutgers College and graduated in 1892 with the degree of A. B. From 1892 to 1895 he was engaged in post-graduate work at the University of Chicago, holding a Fellowship in History during 1893-95, receiving the degree of Ph.D. in 1895. Since then he has been Assistant in History at Chicago University. Dr. Thompson is a member of the American Historical Association, and the Political Science Association of the Central and Western States. He has contributed a number of articles upon historical literature to the *Dial*.

**Cornell College.**—Dr. George H. Alden has been appointed Professor of History at Cornell College, Mt. Vernon, Iowa. Professor Alden was born August 30, 1866, at Tunbridge, Vermont. His early education was obtained in the public schools at Waseca and Albert Lea, Minnesota. He entered Carleton College, Northfield, Minnesota, in 1885, and graduated in 1891 with the degree of B. S. The following year he was Superintendent of Public Schools at Tracy, Minnesota. The succeeding four years he pursued post-graduate study as follows: Harvard University, 1892-93; University of Chicago, 1893-95; University of Wisconsin, 1895-96. He received the degree of A. B. from Harvard in 1893, and the degree of Ph.D. from the University of Wisconsin in 1896.‡ During the past year he has been Acting Assistant Professor of History at the University of Illinois.

\* See ANNALS, Vol. v, p. 275, September, 1894.

† See ANNALS, Vol. viii, p. 352, September, 1896.

‡ See ANNALS, Vol. viii, p. 366, September, 1896.

Professor Alden has written:

"*New Governments West of the Alleghenies before 1780.*" Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin, Vol. II, No. 1. Pp. 74. 1897.

**Harvard.**—Dr. Albert Bushnell Hart has been advanced to the position of Professor of History at Harvard University. Dr. Hart was born on July 1, 1854, at Clarksville, Pa. His early education was obtained in the schools of his native county and the public schools of Cleveland, Ohio. He entered Harvard in 1876, and graduated in 1880 with the degree of A. B. He then pursued graduate studies at Harvard University 1880-81; University of Berlin 1881; University of Freiburg 1882-83; and the School of Political Science at Paris 1882-83. Dr. Hart received the degree of Ph.D. from the University of Freiburg in 1883, and the same year was appointed Instructor in American History at Harvard University. In 1886 he was appointed Instructor in History at Harvard, and in 1887 Assistant Professor of History.

Professor Hart is a member of the following societies: Massachusetts Historical Society, Military Historical Society of Massachusetts, Harvard Historical Society, American Historical Association, Wisconsin State Historical Society, American Statistical Association, Harvard Teachers' Association, National Geographic Society, Shepard Historical Society of Cambridge, and the Massachusetts Society for Promoting Good Citizenship.

Professor Hart is an editor of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, and of the *American Historical Review*. He has contributed articles at various times to the *Atlantic Monthly*, *Forum*, *Review of Reviews*, *New Review*, *Chatauquan*, *New England Magazine*, *Bond Record*, *Political Science Quarterly*, *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, *Magazine of American History*, *Educational Review*, *Academy* (Syracuse), *School Review*, *Nation*, *Outlook*, *Congregationalist*, and various Boston and Cambridge newspapers. He has also contributed to the Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society, American Historical Association, National Educational Association, and the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools. Besides these he has written:

"*The Coercive Powers of the Government of the United States.*" A thesis presented to the University of Freiburg for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. August, 1883. Part III. "*Coercive Provisions of the Constitution.*" Pp. 22. Eisenach, Germany, 1885.

"*Topical Outline of the Course in History of the North American Colonies and their Growth into a Federal Union (1492-1789), given at Harvard College in the Academic year 1885-1886.*" Pp. 165. Cambridge.

"*Introduction to the Study of Federal Government.*" Harvard University Publications. Harvard Historical Monographs, No. 2. Pp. x, 200. Boston, 1891.

"*Epoch Maps, Illustrating American History.*" Pp. iv, 14, with colored maps. New York, 1891.

"*Formation of the Union, 1750-1829.*" With five maps. "*Epochs of American History*," Vol. II. Pp. xx, 278. New York and London, 1892.

"*Practical Essays on American Government.*" Pp. viii, 311. New York, 1893.

"*Revised Suggestions on the Study of the History and Government of the United States.*" Pp. 164. Cambridge.

"*Studies in American Education.*" Pp. viii, 150. New York and London, 1895.

"*Methods of Teaching History.*" Boston, 1885. (With A. D. White and others.)

"*Guide to the Study of American History.*" Pp. xvi, 471. Boston and London, 1896. (With Edward Channing.)

"*Harvard Debating. Subjects and Suggestions for Courses in Oral Discussion.*" Pp. 55. Cambridge, 1896. (With George Pierce Baker.)

"*American History Leaflets.*" 35 numbers. New York, 1892-97. (Edited with Edward Channing.)

"*American History Told by Contemporaries.*" Vol. I. "*Era of Colonization, 1492-1689.*" Pp. xviii, 606. New York and London, 1897.

**Haverford College.**—Mr. Don Carlos Barrett has been appointed Instructor in Political Science and History at Haverford College, Pa. Mr. Barrett was born April 22, 1868, at Spring Valley, Ohio. He attended the public schools of his native place, and in 1885 entered Earlham College, Richmond, Ind. He graduated from that institution in 1889 with the degree of Ph.B. From 1889 to 1892 Mr. Barrett was engaged in teaching in the schools of Fountain City and Muncie, Ind. The next year he was Instructor in History and Economics at Earlham College. He then engaged in post-graduate study at the University of Chicago (1893-94), and at Harvard University (1895-96). He received the degree of A. M. from Earlham College in 1893, and the same degree from Harvard in 1896. During the past year he has been Assistant in Economics at Harvard University.

**Iowa State University.**—Dr. Benjamin F. Shambaugh\* has been advanced to the position of Professor of Government Adminis-

\* See ANNALS, Vol. viii, p. 516, November, 1896.



tration at the Iowa State University. His recent publications include the following:

"*An Important Manuscript.*" Iowa Historical Record, January, 1897.

"*Documentary Material Relating to the History of Iowa.*" Vol. II, containing material on Local Government. State University of Iowa. (In press.)

**Kansas Agricultural College.**—Dr. Edward W. Bemis\* has been appointed Professor of Economic Science at the State Agricultural College, Manhattan, Kans. Since leaving the University of Chicago in 1895, Dr. Bemis has engaged in varied lines of work in economics. He has given courses of lectures at the University of Wisconsin, and Syracuse University, and has appeared by invitation before the committees of the Legislature of New York and the Legislature of Pennsylvania, who were engaged in investigating the gas question. He has contributed many articles on municipal problems to the *New York Journal*, the *Chicago Record*, and the *Bibliotheca Sacra*, of which he was an associate editor, and he made the special studies for the United States Department of Labor and the Illinois Bureau of Labor Statistics referred to below. His publications of the last five years are:

"*Recent Results of Municipal Gas Making in the United States.*" Review of Reviews, February, 1893

"*The Discontent of the Farmer.*" Journal of Political Economy, March, 1893.

"*The Silver Situation in Colorado.*" Review of Reviews, September, 1893.

"*Local Government in the South and Southwest.*" Johns Hopkins University Studies, in History of Political Science, Vol. XI, Nos. 11 and 12.

"*Co-operative Life Insurance.*" Johnson's Encyclopedia, new edition.

"*The Homestead Strike.*" Journal of Political Economy, June, 1894.

"*Relation of Labor Organizations to the American Boy, and to Trade Instruction.*" ANNALS OF THE AMERICAN ACADEMY, September, 1894.

"*The Chicago Strike of 1894.*" Revue d'Economie politique, July, 1895.

"*The Restriction of Immigration.*" Bibliotheca Sacra, July, 1896.

"*Co-operative Distribution.*" Bulletin of the United States Department of Labor, September, 1896.

\*See ANNALS, Vol. iii, p. 90, July, 1892.

"*The Question of Free Coinage of Silver.*" Bibliotheca Sacra, October, 1896.

"*Municipal Lighting.*" New York Independent, May 6, 1897.

"*Chicago Gas and Chicago Street Railway Report of the Illinois Bureau of Labor Statistics for 1896.*" (In press.)

Mr. Frank Parsons has been appointed Professor of History and Political Science at the State Agricultural College, Manhattan, Kans. Professor Parsons was born November 14, 1854, at Mount Holly, N. J. His early education was obtained at a private school in Mount Holly. In 1869 he entered Cornell University, and graduated in 1873 with the degree of B. C. E. He pursued the profession of civil engineering for a year, and then engaged in teaching in Southbridge, Mass. He studied law and was admitted to the bar in Boston in 1881. Since 1887 Professor Parsons has been engaged in the work of editing and revising legal text-books for Little, Brown & Co., and since 1891 he has been a Lecturer in the Boston University School of Law, which lectureship he will continue to hold. He is also one of the lecturers for the National Direct Legislation League. Besides numerous magazine articles on Proportional Representation, the Referendum, etc., Professor Parsons has written the following:

"*The World's Best Books.*" Boston, 1893.

"*Our Country's Need.*" Boston, 1894.

"*The Telegraph Monopoly.*" The Arena.

"*The People's Lamps.*" Ibid.

"*Philosophy of Mutualism.*" Boston.

"*Government and the Law of Equal Freedom.*"

"*The Drift of Our Country.*" The New Time.

"*Public Ownership of Monopolies.*"

Mr. Thomas E. Will,\* Professor of Economics and Philosophy at the Kansas State Agricultural College, has been elected President of that institution. Professor Will's recent publications include the following:

"*Abolition of War,*" with data and bibliography. Arena, December, 1894.

"*Bibliography of Charity.*" Ibid., January, 1895.

"*Bibliography of Gambling.*" Ibid., February, 1895.

"*How to Organize the Union for Practical Progress.*" Ibid., March, 1895.

"*The Problem of the City.*" American Magazine of Civics, September, 1895.

"*The End of Education.*" The Open Court, October 17, 1895.

\* See ANNALS, Vol. v, p. 416, November, 1894.

"*Bibliography of the Literature of the Land Question.*" August, 1896.

"*The Social Movement in England.*" New York Christian Advocate, 1896.

"*Modern Wealth-Distribution and Some of its Corollaries.*" Students' Herald, February 10, 1897.

"*College Conservatism,*" Industrialist, August 16, 1897.

"*The Warfare of Science,*" Ibid., September 2, 1897.

"*The Owners of the United States,*" Ibid., September 13, 1897.

"*Public Ownership and Socialism,*" Ibid., October 11, 1897.

**Leland Stanford Junior University.**—Dr. Clyde A. Duniway\* has been appointed Assistant Professor of History at the Leland Stanford Junior University. He has written:

"*Restrictions upon the Freedom of the Press in Massachusetts.*"

"*Graduate Courses, 1897-1898.*" (Editor-in-Chief.)

**Dr. Edward Dana Durand** has been appointed Assistant Professor of Economics at Stanford University, with leave of absence until September, 1898. Dr. Durand was born October 18, 1871, at Romeo, Macomb County, Mich. He attended the public schools of his native place and of Huron, So. Dak., and the preparatory school of Yankton College. In 1889 he entered Oberlin College, graduating with the degree of A. B. in 1893. From 1893 to 1895 he pursued post-graduate studies at Cornell University and received the degree of Ph. D. from that institution in 1896.† During the past two years Dr. Durand has been Legislative Librarian in the New York State Library, having charge of the statutes and documents of New York and other states and countries. He will continue this work during the present year. Dr. Durand has written the following:

"*Voting Machines.*" Johnson's "Cyclopedia," 1894.

"*Political and Municipal Legislation in 1895.*" ANNALS, May, 1896.

"*Comparative Summary and Index of Legislation by States in 1895.*" Pp. 310. New York State Library, Legislative Bulletin, No. 6, 1896.

"*Political and Municipal Legislation in 1896.*" ANNALS, March, 1897.

"*Comparative Summary and Index of Legislation by States in 1896.*" Pp. 110. New York State Library, Legislative Bulletin, No. 7, 1897.

"*Comparative State Finance Statistics, 1890 and 1895.*" Pp. 52. New York State Library, Legislative Bulletin, No. 8, 1897.

\*See ANNALS, Vol. viii, p. 354, September, 1896.

†See ANNALS, Vol. viii, p. 365, September, 1896.

"*The City Chest of New Amsterdam.*" Pp. 30. New York, Half Moon Series, 1897.

"*The Finances of New York City.*" New York. (In press.)

**University of Michigan.**—Dr. Frank H. Dixon\* has been advanced to the position of Acting Assistant Professor of Political Economy and Finance at the University of Michigan, and is to fill the chair of Professor Adams during the absence of the latter abroad. Dr. Dixon has written:

"*The Teaching of Economics in Secondary Schools.*" The National Herbart Society. Third Year-book.

**Northwestern University.**—Dr. James A. James† has been appointed Professor of the History of Continental Europe at the Northwestern University. His recent publications include the following:

"*The Beginnings of University Extension in Iowa.*" Extension Magazine, 1895.

"*College Education.*" Report of the Iowa Teachers' Association, 1895.

**University of Pennsylvania.**—Mr. Edward Potts Cheyney has been advanced to the position of Professor of European History at the University of Pennsylvania. Professor Cheyney was born January 17, 1861, at Wallingford, Pa. His early education was obtained in the public and private schools of Philadelphia. In 1879 he entered the University of Pennsylvania, and graduated with the degree of A. B. in 1883. The following year he engaged in study in the Wharton School of Finance and Economy of that institution, and in 1884 received the degree, then conferred but since abolished, of B. F. (Bachelor of Finance). In 1886 he received the degree of A. M. from the same university. He was appointed Instructor in History at the University of Pennsylvania in 1884, and in 1890 was advanced to the position of Assistant Professor of History, which chair he has filled until the present time. Professor Cheyney is a member of the Pennsylvania Historical Society and of the American Historical Association. His publications include the following:

"*Early American Land Tenures.*" Pp. 26. Wharton School Annals of Political Science. University of Pennsylvania, 1884.

"*Anti-Rent Agitation in the State of New York.*" Pp. 65. Political Economy and Public Law Series, Vol. I, No. 2. University of Pennsylvania, 1886.

"*Recent Decisions of Courts in Conspiracy and Boycott Cases.*" Political Science Quarterly, 1889.

\* See ANNALS, Vol. viii, p. 359, September, 1896.

† See ANNALS, Vol. iv, p. 647, January, 1894.

"*Conditions of Labor in Early Pennsylvania.*" The Manufacturer, February-April, 1891.

"*Recent Tendencies in Reform of Land Tenure.*" ANNALS, November, 1891.

"*Historical Introduction*" to Report of State Bureau of Statistics of Pennsylvania on Commerce and Shipbuilding on the Delaware, 1891. Pp. 80.

"*Der Farmerbund in den Vereinigten Staaten.*" Archiv für Gesetzgebung und Statistik, March 1892.

"*A Third Revolution.*" ANNALS, May, 1892.

"*Die Achtstundenbewegung in den Vereinigten Staaten.*" Archiv für Gesetzgebung und Statistik, December, 1892.

"*Social Changes in England in the Sixteenth Century.*" 1895.

As editor of the University of Pennsylvania "Series of Translations and Reprints from the Original Sources of European History," Professor Cheyney has prepared the following numbers:

"*Early Reformation Period in England;*"

"*England in the Time of Wycliffe;*"

"*English Constitutional Documents;*"

"*Manorial Documents;*"

"*English Towns and Gilds;*"

"*Documents Illustrative of Feudalism.*"

**Ursinus College.**—Dr. James Lynn Barnard has been appointed Professor of History and Political Science at Ursinus College. Dr. Barnard was born on July 9, 1867, at Milford, N. Y. He attended the high school at Cooperstown, N. Y., and in 1888 entered Syracuse University, from which institution he graduated in 1892 with the degree of B. S. The next year he was Instructor in Mathematics and Political Economy at Epworth Seminary, Epworth, Iowa. He then entered the University of Pennsylvania for post-graduate study, and received the degree of Ph.D. from that institution in 1897. While studying at the University of Pennsylvania he was Instructor in Mathematics and History at the Koehler Institute, Philadelphia. Professor Barnard is a member of the American Academy of Political and Social Science.

**West Virginia University.**—Hon. Richard Ellsworth Fast has been appointed Instructor in History and Political Science at the West Virginia University. Mr. Fast was born on October 31, 1858, at White Day, Monongalia County, West Virginia. After teaching in the public schools for a number of years, Mr. Fast entered the West Virginia University in 1880 and remained there until 1882, when he became deputy clerk at the Monongalia County Court. Two years later he was chosen clerk of the Circuit Court. While holding this position

he re-entered West Virginia University, and in 1886 graduated with the degree of LL. B. After the expiration of his term in 1890 he engaged in the practice of law. Mr. Fast has been five times elected Mayor of Morgantown, and in 1896 was elected to the State Senate. He was chairman of the joint committee appointed to revise the Constitution of West Virginia, and the report of this work, which he has prepared, is now on press. Mr. Fast has recently taken a special course in history at Harvard University. He is a member of the American Academy of Political and Social Science.

**Dr. Jerome H. Raymond** \* has been elected President of the West Virginia University. In addition to his administrative duties he will be Professor of Sociology and will give a number of courses.

**University of Wisconsin.**—Dr. Balthasar Henry Meyer has been appointed Instructor in Sociology and University Extension Lecturer in Economics at the University of Wisconsin. Dr. Meyer was born on May 28, 1866, at Cedarburg, Wisconsin. He attended the local schools and the State Normal School at Oshkosh. He entered the University of Wisconsin, graduating in 1894 with the degree of B. L. He studied at the University of Berlin during the following year, and then returned to the University of Wisconsin to engage in post-graduate work. He has held a Fellowship in Economics at that institution during the past two years, and received the degree of Ph. D. † at the last commencement. Dr. Meyer is a member of the Wisconsin Academy of Sciences, Arts and Letters. He has written the following:

"*The Adjustment of Railroad Rates in Prussia.*" Transactions of the Wisconsin Academy of Sciences, Arts and Letters. XI.

"*The Administration of Prussian Railroads with Special Reference to the Adjustment of Rates.*" ANNALS, Current number.

"*The History of Railway Legislation in Wisconsin.*" Wisconsin Historical Collections. (In press.)

IN ADDITION to those previously mentioned, the following students received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy for work in political and social science, and allied subjects during the past year:

**University of Michigan.**—Ira D. Travis, A. M. Thesis: *The Clayton-Bulwer Treaty.*

**New York University.**—Julius W. Knapp, A. M. Thesis: *Indiscriminate Charity.*

IN ADDITION to those previously mentioned, the following appointments to post-graduate scholarships have been made for the year 1897-98:

\* See ANNALS, Vol. vi, p. 298, September, 1895.

† See ANNALS, Vol. x. p. 259, September, 1897.



**University of Wisconsin.**—*Graduate Scholarships in History*, Carl Lotus Becker, B. L., and Louise Phelps Kellogg, B. L.

## AUSTRIA.

**Cracow.**—Dr. Alexander Wladimir von Czerkowski has recently been appointed Extraordinary Professor of Political Economy at the University of Cracow. Born at Bursztyn in Galicia, February 17, 1867, he was educated at the gymnasium at Rzeszow, and entered the University of Lemberg in 1885. The following year he went to Cracow where he remained until he secured in 1890 the degree of Doctor Juris. Thereupon he pursued further special studies in Berlin, 1890-91, and Paris, 1892. In October, 1893, he became Docent at the University of Cracow, and has also been since 1894 vice-director of the Municipal Statistical Bureau of Cracow. Professor von Czerkowski is a member of the Juridical Philosophical Commission of the Polish Academy of Sciences in Cracow. His publications have been :

"*Statystyka parcelacy w Austryi*," *Ekonomista Polski*. Lemberg, 1891.

"*Ruch spoleczny w socyalizm*." Ibid., 1892.

"*Teorya czystego dochodu z ziemi*." Pp. 229. Lemberg, 1893.

"*Zadania panstwa na polu gospodarstwa spolecznego*." *Ateneum*, Warsaw, 1896.

"*Wielkie gospodarstwa, ich istota i znaczenie*," *Proceedings of Cracow Academy of Sciences*, 1896.

"*Ruch ludnosci miasta Krakowa 1887-1894*. Cracow, 1896.

"*De la nature et de l'influence des grandes exploitations*," Cracow, 1896.

"*Recherches sur l'état de la population en Pologne à la fin du XVI siècle*." Cracow, 1896.

"*Krakau*," in "*Österreichisches Städtebuch*." Vol. VII.

## GERMANY.

**Berlin.**—Dr. Ernst von Halle has recently become Private-docent for Political Economy at the University of Berlin. He was born at Hamburg, January 17, 1868, and attended the Johanneum gymnasium of that city. He pursued university studies at Munich, 1887-88; Bonn, 1888-89; Berlin, 1889-90 and Leipzig, 1890-91. At the last named university he obtained the degree of Ph.D. in 1891. In the following year he occupied a post in the Deutsche Bank in Berlin and attended the economic seminars of the university. In the fall and winter of the year 1892 he was occupied with studies in the archives of Belgian, Dutch and Hanseatic cities. From March, 1893, until April,

1896, Dr. von Halle traveled in the United States, Canada, the West Indies and in South America. Dr. von Halle is a member of the historical societies of Hamburg and Lubeck, of the *Verein für Socialpolitik* and of the American Economic Association. He was the translator of the paper by Professor Gustav Schmoller entitled "The Idea of Justice and Political Economy," which appeared in the ANNALS for March, 1894. Dr. von Halle has written:

"*Die Hamburger Giro Bank und ihr Ausgang.*" Pp. 43. Berlin, 1891.

"*Die Fleischversorgung Berlins.*" Schmoller's Jahrbuch, 1892.

"*Arbeiter-Kolonien und Natural-Verpflegungs Stationen in Deutschland.*" Handel's Museum, Vienna, 1892.

"*Der freie Handelsmakler in Bremen.*" Schmoller's Jahrbuch, 1893.

"*Die Cholera in Hamburg in ihren Ursachen und Wirkungen.*" Pp. 92. Hamburg, 1893.

"*Briefe von der Columbischen Weltausstellung.*" Hamburgischer Correspondenten, 1893.

"*Industrielle Unternehmer und Unternehmungs Verbaude.*" Pp. 230. Leipzig, 1894.

"*Die wirthschaftliche Krisis des Jahres 1893 in den Vereinigten Staaten.*" Schmoller's Jahrbuch, 1894.

"*Trusts or Industrial Combinations and Coalitions.*" Pp. xvi and 350. New York and London, 1895.

"*Reisebriefe aus West Indien und Venezuela.*" Pp. 128. Hamburg, 1896.

"*Das Interesse Deutschlands, an der Amerikanischen Präsidenten Wahl des Jahres 1896.*" Schmoller's Jahrbuch, 1896.

"*Zur Geschichte des Maklerwesens in Hamburg.*" Pp. 44. Hamburg, 1897.

"*Baumwoll-Production und Pflanzungswirthschaft in den Nord-Amerikanischen Südstaaten.*" Vol. I, "*Die Sklavenzeit.*" Pp. xxiv and 396. Leipzig, 1897.

**Freiburg.**—Dr. Heinrich Johann Sieveking has recently become Privat-docent for Political Economy at the University of Freiburg. He was born August 20, 1871, at Hamburg, and received his early education at the Matthias Candius Gymnasium at Wandsbek. He pursued legal studies at the Universities of Leipzig, Tübingen and Strassburg, and philosophical studies at Göttingen, Leipzig, Berlin and Munich. He obtained the degree of Doctor Juris in 1893, and that of Ph.D. in 1895. Dr. Sieveking has published:

"*Das Seedarlehen des Alterthums.*" Leipzig, 1893.

"*Die rheinischen Gemeinden Erpel und Unkel und ihre Entwicklung im 14ten und 15ten Jahrhundert.*" Leipzig, 1895.

"*Hamburgische Colonisationspläne 1840-42.*" Preussische Jahrbücher, October, 1896.

"*Die Genneser Seidenindustrie im 15ten und 16ten Jahrhundert, ein Beitrag zur Geschichte des Verlagssystems.*" Schmoller's Jahrbuch, 1897.

**Göttingen.**—Dr. Richard Ehrenberg has been appointed Extraordinary Professor of Political Economy at the University of Göttingen. He was born February 5, 1857, at Wolfenbüttel. His early education was received at Wolfenbüttel and Brunswick. In 1873 he went into business, but began university studies in 1884. He frequented until 1887 the Universities of Munich, Göttingen and Tübingen, receiving the degree of Doctor of the Political Sciences at the last named. After travels in England, Belgium, France and Italy, he became in 1889 Secretary of the Royal "*Commerz Kollegium*," at Altona, a post which he has held until the present year. In addition to numerous articles in Conrads "*Handwörterbuch*," Professor Ehrenberg has written:

"*Die Fondspekulation und die Gesetzgebung.*" Pp. 232, 1883.

"*Ein Hamburgischer Waaren und Wechsel Preiscourant aus dem 16ten Jahrhundert.*" Hänsische Geschichtsblätter, 1883.

"*Zur Geschichte der Hamburger Handlung im 16ten Jahrhundert.*" Zeitschrift des Vereins für Hamburger Geschichte, 1884.

"*Hamburger Handel und Handelspolitik im 16ten Jahrhundert,*" Hamburgs Vergangenheit, edited by Karl Koppman, 1885.

"*Makler Hosteleirs und Börse in Brügge vom 13ten bis zum 16ten Jahrhundert.* Zeitschrift für Handelsrecht, 1885.

"*Wie wurde Hamburg gross? Streifzüge in der hamburger Handelsgeschichte.*" I. "*Die Anfänge des hamburger Freihafens.*" Pp. 109. 1888.

"*Hamburg und Antwerpen seit 300 Jahren.*" Pp. 49. 1889.

"*Die alte Nürnberger Börse.*" Mittheilungen des Vereins für Geschichte der Stadt Nürnberg. 1889.

"*Die ersten tiroler Gulden.*" Bayerische Numismatische Zeitschrift, 1889.

"*Ein Finanzund social politischer Projekt aus dem 16ten Jahrhundert.*" Zeitschrift für die gessamte Staatswissenschaften. 1890.

"*Jahresberichte des Königlichen Commerz Kollegiums in Altona,*" 1889-1896.

"*Altona unter Schauenburgischen Herxschaft,*" 1891-93. Six numbers of about 70 pp. each.

"*Hamburger Handel und Schiffahrt vor 200 Jahren,*" Pp. 34, 1891.

"*Das Königliche Commerz Kollegium in Altona.*" Pp. 67. Printed as MS. 1892.

"Hans Kleberg, der gute Deutsche sein Leben und Charakter," Verein für Geschichte der Stadt Nürnberg, 1893.

"Francis Estrup, Rechtspflege im 16ten Jahrhundert." Zeitschrift des Vereins für Hamburger Geschichte, 1894.

"Bürger und Blamie." Pp. 61. 1894.

"Allona's topographischer Entwicklung." Pp. 38, with maps, etc. 1894.

"Aus der Hamburgers Handelsgeschichte." Zeitschrift des Vereins für Hamburger Geschichte, 1895.

"Allona's Fischereihafen und Fischmarkt." 1896.

"Hamburg und England im Zeitalter der Königin Elisabeth." Pp. 362. 1896.

"Das Zeitalter der Fugger," Bd. I. "Die Geldmärkte des 16ten Jahrhundert." Pp. 420. 1896. Bd. II. "Die Weltbörsen und Finanzkrisen des 16ten Jahrhundert." Pp. 367. 1897.

"Der Handel seine wirthschaftliche Bedeutung, seine nationlen Pflichten und sein Verhältniss zum Staat." Pp. 98. 1897.

"Handelshochschulen I. Gutachen von Kaufleuten Industriellen und anderen Sachverständigen." Printed as MS. Pp. 275. 1897.

"Handelshochschulen II. Denkschrift über die Handelshochschule." Pp. 56. 1897.

"Der Ausstand der Hamburger Hasenarberiler, 1896-97." Conrad's Jahrbücher, 1897.

**Halle.**—Dr. Wilhelm Kähler has become Privat-docent for Political Economy at the University of Halle. He was born in that city February 5, 1871, and attended the Latin School of the celebrated Francke educational foundations. He pursued legal and economic studies at the universities of Halle and Berlin. At the former he secured in 1893 the degree of Doctor Juris, and in 1896 that of Doctor of Philosophy. From 1892 to 1896 he was *Referendar* in the service of the court. Dr. Kähler has written:

"Die Stellvertretung im Gewerbebetrieb, eine gewerberechtliche Untersuchung." Pp. 53. Leipzig, 1894.

"Gesinderwesen und Gesinderecht in Deutschland." Pp. 229. Jena, 1896.

"Beiträge zur Lehre von den öffentlichen Schulden." Vol. I. "Die preussische Kommunal anleihen." Pp. 121. Jena, 1897.

"Die Bedeutung des Reichsinvalidinfonds für den preussischen Kommunalkredit." Conrad's Jahrbücher, 1897.

**Jena.**—Dr. Eduard Rosenthal was appointed last year Ordinary Professor of Public Law at the University of Jena. He was born September 6, 1853, at Würzburg, Bavaria, where he attended the gymnasium,

sium, and began his university studies. During his university studies, 1872-76, he also attended the Universities of Heidelberg and Berlin. At the university of his native city, he obtained the degree of Doctor Juris in 1878, having been engaged in legal practice since 1876. In 1880 he became Privat-docent at Jena, and in 1883 was appointed Extraordinary Professor. Professor Rosenthal is Chairman of the Thuringian Historical Commission. His writings include articles upon: "*Handelsgeschäfte*," "*Mühlenrecht*," "*Speditionsgeschäfte*," "*Unlauterer Wettbewerb*," and "*Gesellschaften mit beschränkter Haftung*," in Conrad's *Handwörterbuch*.

"*Zur Geschichte des Eigrutunes in der Stadt Würzburg*." Pp. 153. 1878.

"*Die Rechtsfolger des Ehebruchs nach canonischen und deutschen Rechte*." Pp. 104. 1880.

"*Beiträge zur deutschen Stadtrechtsgeschichte*." Vols. I and II.

"*Zur Rechtsgeschichte der Städte Landshut und Straubing*." Pp. 337. 1883.

"*Die Behördenorganisation Kaiser Ferdinands I*," Archiv für österreichischen Geschichte, 1887.

"*Geschichte des Gerichtswesens und der Verwaltungsorganisation Baierns*." Vol. I, 1180-1598. Pp. 602. 1889.

"*Internationales Eisenbahnfrachtrecht auf Grund des internationalen Uebereinkommens vom 14 Oktober, 1890*." Pp. 398. 1894.

**Marburg.**—Dr. Karl Oldenberg\* has recently been appointed Extraordinary Professor of Political Economy at the University of Marburg. In recent years Professor Oldenberg has published:

"*Studien über die rheinisch-westfälische Bergarbeiterbewegung*." Pp. 124. Leipzig, 1890.

"*Die Ziele der deutschen Sozialdemokratie*." Pp. 104. Leipzig, 1891.

"*Der Kellnerberuf, Eine sociale Studie*." Pp. 57. Leipzig, 1893.

"*Der Maximalarbeitstag im Bäcker- und Konditorengewerbe*." Pp. 212. Leipzig, 1894.

"*Ueber Deutschland als Industriestaat*." Pp. 45. Vortrag, Göttingen, 1897.

"*Die Generalversammlung des Vereins für Socialpolitik 1890*." Schmoller's Jahrbuch, 1891.

"*Ueber den Einfluss der Verkehr auf die Koalitionsgesetzgebung*." Ibid., 1891.

"*Die heutige Lage der Commis nach neuerer Litteratur*." Ibid., 1892.

"*Die Ausbreitung der Gewerkschaften in Deutschland und England*." Ibid., 1892.

\*See ANNALS, Vol. II, p. 109, July, 1891.

- "*Neuere Zeitschriften für socialpolitische Berichterstattung.*" Ibid. 1894.  
 "Statistik der jugendlichen Fabrikarbeiter." Ibid., 1894.  
 "Arbeitslosenstatistik, Arbeitsvermittlung und Arbeitslosenversicherung." Ibid., 1895.  
 "Die Form des geplanten Arbeitslosenstatistik des Deutschen Reiches." Ibid., 1895.  
 "Der Berliner Bierboycott im Jahre 1894." Ibid., 1896.  
 "Der Arbeitsnachweis in Berliner Braugewerbe." Ibid., 1896.  
 "Die Arbeitseinstellungen in Deutschland." Conrad's Handwörterbuch, Vol. I, 1890.  
 "Die Arbeitseinstellungen in Deutschland." Ibid. First Supplementary volume, 1895.  
 "Die Gewerkevereine in Deutschland." Ibid., 1895.  
 "Ueber sociale Steuerpolitik in Preussen." Preussische Jahrbücher, 1893.  
 "Die Bäcker-verordnungsdebatten und die Rechtsgültigkeit der Bäcker-verordnung." Ibid., 1896.  
 "Die Arbeitslosenstatistik des letzten Winters." Socialpolitisches Centralblatt, May 8, 1893.  
 "Arbeitslosigkeit." Fliegende Blätter aus dem Rauhen Hause. Hamburg, 1897.  
 "Ortspolizei und Maximalarbeitstag." Blätter für sociale Praxis, August 30 and October 25, 1893.  
 "Die Arbeitslosen versicherung in Basel-stadt." Ibid., February, 1895.

## SWITZERLAND.

**Basle.**—Dr. Fritz Fleiner has recently been appointed Ordinary Professor of Public Law at the University of Basle. He was born January 24, 1867, at Aarau, and attended the schools of his native city and the gymnasium of the Cantonal School of Aargau. He studied law at the University of Zürich, 1887; Leipzig, 1887-88; Berlin, 1888-89; and returned in the fall of 1889 to Zürich, where he obtained the degree of Doctor Juris in 1890. He then entered legal practice in Aarau, becoming in 1891 advocate and notary. After passing a year in Paris, Dr. Fleiner became Privat-docent at the University of Zürich in 1892. In 1895 he was appointed Extraordinary Professor at the same institution. Professor Fleiner has written:

- "*Obligatorische Civilehe und Katholische Kirche.*" (Awarded the Royal Prize by the Law Faculty at Berlin.) Leipzig, 1890.  
 "Die tridentinische Ehevorschrift." Leipzig, 1892.  
 "Die Ehescheidung Napoleons I." Leipzig, 1893.



"*Die religiöse Erziehung der Kinder, nach schweizerischen Bundesrecht.*" Zeitschrift für schweizerisches Recht. N. F. XII.

"*Staat und Bischofswahl in Bistum Basel.*" Leipzig, 1897.

"*Aargauische Kirchenpolitik in der Restaurationszeit.*" Taschenbuch der historischen Gesellschaft des Kantons Aargau, 1897.

**Dr. Traugott Geering** has recently become Privat-docent for Statistics in the University of Basle. He was born in that city February 21, 1859, and received there his early education in the gymnasium. He began his university studies at Basle in the year 1876, and in 1879 went to Leipzig. After a year there and a further year in Berlin, he returned to Basle in 1881 for a final year's study. His degree of Doctor of Philosophy was granted by the university of his native city. On the completion of his university work Dr. Geering devoted himself to literary pursuits, which bore fruit in 1886 in a "History of the Trade and Industries of Basle." In 1887 he became chief of the Swiss Commercial Statistics, in the Federal Customs Department at Berne. He resigned this post in 1896 to become secretary of the Chamber of Commerce at Basle. Dr. Geering is a member of the Swiss historical and statistical associations, and has been a member of the International Statistical Institute since 1896. In the latter organization he has borne a prominent part. The session at St. Petersburg, held in August of the present year, discussed upon his suggestion the comparability of commercial statistics and his proposal for a commercial year ending August 31. His contributions to the *Schweizerische Blätter für Wirtschaft und Socialpolitik*, and to the *Schweizerische statistische Zeitschrift* have been numerous. He has also published:

"*Handel und Industrie der Stadt Basel—bis zum Ende des XVIIIten Jahrhunderts.*" Pp. xxvi and 678. Basle, 1886.

"*Jahresberichte der Schweizerischen Handelsstatistik.*" 1887-95.

"*Zusammenfassender Berichte über den Schweizerischen Handel von 1885 bis 1895.*"

"*Staatswirtschaft,*" and "*Volkswirtschaft.*" Articles in Furrer's "*Volkswirtschaftslexikon der Schweiz.*" Vols. III and IV.

"*Die Erhebungsperiode der Handelsstatistik.*" Bulletin de l'Institut Internationale de Statistique. Vol. IX.

**Berne.**—Dr. Ludwig Rudolf von Salis has been appointed Honorary Professor of Public Law at the University of Berne. He was born at Maienfeld, Grisons, Switzerland, May 28, 1863, and received his early training at the gymnasium of Basle. There he also began his legal studies at the university, and received in 1885 the degree of Doctor Juris. In the meantime he had pursued his studies at the universities of Heidelberg, Leipzig, Strassburg, Berlin and Paris. He entered

the judicial service in Basle as clerk of court, became later a member of the court of first instance, and in 1894 of the court of appeals. In 1886 he became Privat-docent at the University of Basle, and in 1888 was appointed Ordinary Professor in the legal faculty. In the year 1894 Professor von Salis was Rector of the University. In the present year he left Basle to enter the Federal Department of Justice at Berne as Chief of the Division of Legislation, etc. Besides articles in the *Zeitschrift für Schweizerisches Recht*, Professor von Salis has written:

"*Beiträge zur Geschichte des Eherechts.*" 1886.

"*Der Tridentinische Eheschliessungsvorschrift.*" 1888.

"*Rechtsquellen des Kantons Graubünden.*" 2 Vols. 1888.

"*Leges Burgundiorum in Monumentae Germanicæ.*" Halm, Hannover. 1892.

"*Schweizerisches Bundesrecht.*" 4 Vols. 1892-95.

"*Die Religionsfreiheit in der Praxis.*" 1892.

"*Der Erlass einer bürgerlichen Gesetzbuches.*" 1894.

## BOOK DEPARTMENT.

### NOTES.

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY have just brought out a second edition of Professor Bastable's useful "Theory of International Trade,"\* of which the first edition was published ten years ago. Within this period much attention has been given to problems of foreign trade, especially in connection with the policy of protection. Professor Bastable is unswerving in his devotion to free trade, but he gives somewhat more extended attention to the arguments on the other side in this than in the previous edition of his manual. Believing in the essential soundness of the Ricardian theory of international trade, a considerable portion of the first five of the ten chapters of his work is devoted to the explanation of that theory and a refutation of its critics. The "applications" alluded to in the title are contained in the last five chapters, which treat respectively of, "the influence of foreign trade on the internal distribution of wealth," "taxation for revenue in its effects on foreign trade," "the rationale of free trade," "arguments for protection—reasons for its prevalence," and the "conclusion." The latter "is a negative one," and is to the effect that, "governments in their dealings with foreign trade should be guided by the much-vilified maxim of *laissez faire*."

MR. LOUGH's forcible presentation of the financial relations of England and Ireland† has been issued in a third revised and corrected edition. In the revision he has used much important material gathered by the royal commission on the financial relations between Great Britain and Ireland. The book is a strong statement, couched in temperate yet vigorous language, of the disadvantages which Ireland suffers in her present relations to the exchequer of the United Kingdom. While population and wealth have decayed during the century, taxation has increased and the *per capita* burden is greater than ever. The actual sums collected may appear small, but the proportion of taxable wealth taken by the state nearly exhausts the entire income of the people above the requirements of a

\* *The Theory of International Trade, with Some of its Applications to Economic Policy.* By C. F. BASTABLE, M. A., LL. D. Second edition, revised. Pp. xii, 183. Price, \$1.25. London and New York: The Macmillan Co., 1897.

† *England's Wealth, Ireland's Poverty.* By THOMAS LOUGH, M. P., with ten colored diagrams. Pp. 223. Price, 1s. London: Downey & Co., 1897.

bare subsistence, so that the slightest breath of ill-fortune causes widespread want and destitution. For those who desire a knowledge of the latest phase which the Irish question has assumed, Mr. Lough's book offers a compact statement of the nature of the grievance, together with interesting suggestions of a remedy.

REV. CORTLAND MYERS, pastor of the Brooklyn Temple, has printed under the title "Midnight in a Great City"\* the substance of some recent discourses on the moral degradation incident to modern urban life. The evils of tenement house life, the ruin of child life, the clouds in rich homes, the influences of the saloon, the low-grade theatres, gambling houses and houses of ill-fame are depicted in plain language and with a directness and power of illustration well fitted to arouse moral indignation, which is the main purpose of the book. Evils connected with the factory system and the mad rush for wealth at all cost and the partial rescue work of the hospitals and prisons, which gather in the physical and moral wrecks, come in for a share in the discussion. The author has made an honest effort to get at the real facts about which he talks, and, though much of his observation has been necessarily superficial for the purposes of the scientific study of the evils in question, he has gone far enough to avoid many of the exaggerations and mistakes of similar attempts to deal with these conditions for the purpose of arousing the moral conscience of the community. He has also wisely refrained from suggesting sweeping remedies for specific evils on the basis of hasty generalizations. His book will have accomplished its purpose if it arouses its readers to study some of its problems more deeply than its author has yet been able to do and to attack them with the true Christian's earnestness of purpose and love of righteousness.

IN "*La Sociologie. Par Auguste Comte*,"† M. Emile Rigolage has issued a condensation of the last three volumes of the "*Philosophie Positive*," which were included by Comte himself under the title "Social Physics." Comte originally intended that this subject should make up the fourth and last volume of his "Positive Philosophy," but the work of creating the new science of sociology, as he termed the task, grew in his hands until it required three volumes, and was then regarded by its author as only the prospectus

\* *Midnight in a Great City*. By CORTLAND MYERS. Pp. 252. Price, \$1.00. New York: Merrill & Baker. 1896.

† *La Sociologie. Par Auguste Comte. Résumé par ÉMILE RIGOLAGE*. Pp. xv, 472. Price 7 fr. 50. Paris: Felix Alcan, 1897.

of what was to come. Rigolage published in 1881 a "Résumé of the Positive Philosophy" in two volumes which were later translated into German. The original French edition is now out of print and the present volume is practically a new edition of the second volume of the work published in 1881. The author does not think that the interest in the first part of the "Positive Philosophy" is sufficient to warrant a republication of the first volume of his "*Résumé*." The chief interest which English readers will take in the new volume consists in the significance of the publication as an index of the interest of French readers in this part of Comte's writings and their unwillingness to struggle with the heavy and monotonous style of Comte's own writing. Even his ardent followers see the necessity of meeting the demand for a more palatable if less accurate presentation of the positive philosophy. No condensation could be more satisfactory than the excellent piece of literary work done by Harriet Martineau. In her English translation, published originally in 1853, and of which we have had recently a new edition in three volumes in the Bohn Library, she reduced Comte's volumes to about one-fourth of their original bulk. Comte welcomed her book with profuse thanks, and one of his pupils rendered this English translation back into French. In its French form it has been widely used. Yet Comte, with all his peculiarities of style, was not simply verbose; he had some reason, some explanation or some attempt to guard against misconception hid away in all his long sentences. His followers will not admit the validity of criticisms based on the Martineau condensation or any other, and those who are able to read French would better consult and read the original six volumes by Comte, or such parts of them as are of present interest and value. His French followers would render an ultimately greater service to the scientific study of his philosophy, and the present interest in Comte would doubtless justify the undertaking, if they would issue a really good edition of the "Positive Philosophy" supplied with notes and a good introduction. An annotated edition of part of the work, but preserving the words of the original as far as it goes, is also a desideratum.

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REVIEWS.

*Die Finanzverhältnisse der Einzelstaaten der Nordamerikanischen Union.* By Dr. ERNEST LUDLOW BOGART. Pp. xiii, 157. Jena: Gustav Fischer, 1897.

This adds another to the long list of economic studies made by American students under the direction of Professor Conrad. The title

is a little misleading, for it is not the "*Finanzverhältnisse*" that the author treats of, but certain phases of the "*Finanzwesen*" of the different commonwealths. The book contains an introduction and four parts. The introduction is for German readers. It tells them, what they are so prone to forget, that the American commonwealths have independent fields of action. The first part is descriptive and historical. It deals mainly with the history of state debts and with the constitutional limitations of the power of the legislatures in regard to finance. The second part deals with the procedure in the formation of the budget, and includes in translation the author's paper on "Financial Procedure in State Legislatures." \* The third part is an analysis of the budgets of the different commonwealths and includes an outline of the different forms of taxation in use. The fourth and last part discusses the present conditions of state debts.

Dr. Bogart has worked at a great disadvantage, since he has consulted the works of but few of the previous writers in this field. He apparently has not seen Cooley's treatise on the "Law of Taxation," nor Patten's "*Finanzwesen der Staaten und Städte der Nordamerikanischen Union*," an admirable little pamphlet on precisely the same subject and published in the same series of economic studies. He has no references to Trotter's "Observations," Scott's "Repudiation," Johnson's "Report on the Relief of the States," Wood's "History of Taxation in Vermont," Ripley's "Financial History of Virginia," Douglas' "Financial History of Massachusetts" nor to a number of other contributions to this field. Not one of the numerous cases bearing on taxation or financial procedure that have been decided by the courts is cited. The reports of state officials, the census, and the statutes form his chief sources.

The best part of the book is the sketch of financial procedure in state legislatures, half of which, that dealing with appropriations, has already been printed in English in the ANNALS. The other half, dealing with the procedure in raising money, is equally good. Outside of this sketch there is little that is new in the book. The first part is drawn mainly from Adam's "Public Debts," and the third from Seligman's various works.

There are a number of misprints and errors. Here are a few that were noted. On page 6 the commonwealths are credited with spending only \$77,105,911 in 1890. As a matter of fact they spent over \$116,000,000 that year. On page 7 and in the table on page 8 the states are charged with a debt of \$228,297,093 in 1890; the figures should be \$228,997,389. There are other misprints in the same table. On page 8 it is stated that Wisconsin was the first state to place constitutional

\* ANNALS, Vol. viii, p. 236, September, 1896.



restrictions upon the power of the legislature to make debts (1848), but that honor belongs to Rhode Island, which introduced such a restriction in the constitution adopted in 1842, at the close of the Dorr War. On pages 15 and 20 occurs the statement that the last payment on the old national debt was made in 1834; this should read 1836. In the discussion of the causes of the growth of state debts between 1830 and 1840, no consideration is given to the fact that railroads were a new invention and that they were absolutely necessary at any cost in the Western states. In table vii, page 37, it is stated that the sessions of the Legislature of California are limited to 100 days. There is no fixed limit, but the legislators can collect a *per diem* for sixty days only. But the first legislature after the adoption of the constitution was allowed payment for 100 days. On page 112 California is omitted from the list of states which exempt growing crops. In the discussion of the forms of the tax rate, page 114, no mention is made of the peculiar forms of the tax base, such as the Grand List of Vermont, from which a new form of the tax rate arises.

Some rather naïve judgments are expressed. Thus, on page 61 it is said that the members of the state legislatures are convinced of the correctness of the "theory of the diffusion of taxes," and that hence they consider no tax as good as an old one. We were not aware that the members of the state legislatures thought seriously of any tax theory. On page 147 the differences in the financial systems of the states are spoken of as insignificant, and the author reaches the conclusion that they will gradually disappear. The present tendencies are, however, all in the opposite direction, and the differences are anything but insignificant.

The treatment of the tax systems of the different states is extremely confused and well illustrates the necessity of studying the system of each state by itself. The similarities which tempt to a general discussion are very superficial.

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*Introduction to the Study of Economics.* BY CHARLES JESSE BULLOCK, Ph. D. Pp. 511. Price \$1.25. New York, Boston and Chicago: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1897.

As another attempt to formulate in an elementary text-book the results of recent investigation and analysis in the field of economics, Dr. Bullock's "Introduction" will be welcomed by a wide circle of readers. Its perusal, it is safe to say, will arouse feelings both of satisfaction and of disappointment in the minds of those who seek

in its pages an explanation of the complex industrial phenomena which surround them. The book is not easy to read, nor are its theoretical parts easy to understand. On the other hand, it abounds in useful statistical information and illustrations drawn from actual business life, which are sure to make it interesting to students. The author shows a wide acquaintance with the literature of economics, and his references are nearly always well selected, though somewhat too copious for practical use.

The work is divided into sixteen chapters, of which the longest (56 pp.) is devoted to the "Distribution of Wealth," while the shortest and concluding chapter (14 pp.) discusses the "Economic Functions of Government." Each chapter is followed by a short table of references for collateral reading, while the whole work is concluded by a sixteen-page bibliography, referring to French and German as well as to English and American literature.

How best to introduce economics to the unsophisticated student is a question that perennially harasses the minds alike of teachers and text-book writers. With accepted methods the author of the book under review evidently has little patience. Instead of commencing with the usual observations in regard to the relations between economics and business, he introduces his treatise with a summary account of the economic history of the United States. Well-balanced as this account undoubtedly is, I cannot but think it out of place as a preparation for the chapters on economic theory which follow. The institutions of private property, freedom of contract, money, credit, and even capitalistic production, a study of whose origins *would be* most helpful to the beginner in political economy, were borrowed by us from the mother country. Aside from slavery, therefore, our own economic history has been exceedingly simple. An understanding of how population has increased and spread out over our West, of how we have utilized our natural resources, and of how manufactures and means of communication have grown up among us, however important to the American citizen, is of little direct assistance to the student of economics.

However, I agree with Dr. Bullock in believing that the ordinary text-books plunge too precipitately into an *analysis* of economic phenomena. It seems to be forgotten by the writers of these works that, whereas the older economists addressed themselves to the business community and could take for granted a thorough acquaintance with business phenomena, their pages will be read mainly by students as unfamiliar with the subject-matter of economics as with the science itself. It is easier to appreciate this difficulty than to discover the best means of coping with it. With some diffidence I would suggest as

a better introduction to the study of economics than industrial history, a concrete *description* of the actual structure and methods of modern business, which should pave the way for, and in a sense, justify the abstractions subsequently employed.

Coming to the portion of Dr. Bullock's book treating of economics proper, a chapter on consumption is found to prepare the way for two on the production of wealth, an arrangement which attests the author's conversion to the modern view of what clearness and logic require. Exchange is taken up after production, and introduces three excellent chapters treating of money. Chapters on monopolies and on international trade are then interjected before the long chapter on distribution, already alluded to, while the work concludes with three chapters discussing in a sympathetic, and, at the same time, critical spirit, such matters as labor unions, land nationalization and socialism.

The principal fault to be found with the body of the author's work, refers to his literary style rather than to the matter presented. Short, feverish sentences hurry the reader along from one topic to another, until his head fairly whirls. Scarcely any subject is treated calmly and exhaustively, but each is dismissed with an outline-like paragraph or page, reading often more like a note-book than like a serious work. For example, on pages 186 and 187 we have the following: "§ 110. We must consider next the causes that determine the value of commodities. In this question economists are not yet agreed concerning certain points. First, it is necessary to distinguish between market value and normal value. During 1895 the price of a bushel of wheat in New York varied from fifty-six to eighty-three cents, and was seldom exactly the same on any two successive days," etc. Aside from obvious infelicities of expression, the rushing quality of this diction should be apparent.

Since the author is persuaded—and rightly so, I believe—of the unwisdom of introducing "the beginner to many controversies on fundamental points of theory," it would be unfair to criticise too minutely the chapters treating of value ("exchange"), and distribution. After reading them over carefully I am at a loss to understand how he escapes from the logical circle involved in explaining normal value by a reference to the money cost of production (p. 195), and subsequently finding the "upper limit" to wages (p. 406), in the fact that enough must be left after wages are paid to remunerate the *entrepreneurs* and capitalists for their contributions to the productive result. This may be due, however, to the author's effort to simplify the theory of distribution rather than to any vagueness in his own thinking. In any case, I believe a straight forward explanation of the

"productivity" theory of distribution would give to beginners a clearer and more accurate idea of the influences determining wages, interest, profits, and rent, than the somewhat confusing combination of theories that Dr. Bullock presents.

H. R. S.

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*A General Freight and Passenger Post. A Practical Solution of the Railroad Problem.* By JAMES LEWIS COWLES. Pages xii, 155. Price, \$1.00. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1896.

This little book is characterized by the general advantages and disadvantages of the other volumes in the Questions of the Day Series. It presents a brief and somewhat dogmatic view of the question discussed. The book contains four chapters. The first, devoted to the post-office since 1839, contains a brief general description of the development of the post-office in England and the United States. The second chapter discusses the abuses of the present system of railway management, setting forth in a clear way the absurdities and inconsistencies underlying the system of passenger and freight tariffs in existence in the United States to-day. The author has a tolerably easy task to prove that very few systems could be worse or more illogical. He emphasizes properly enough the proposition that the railways are, from an economic and social point of view, really public instead of private institutions, while they are managed as if they were purely private in character. The third chapter takes up the real discussion of the subject, and attacks the principle of distance as a basis for the determination of railway rates. Much interesting evidence is adduced to show how steadily and rapidly the cost of transportation decreases as the traffic grows. The fourth and last chapter considers the principle of cost of service as a basis of public transportation charges, and an interesting argument is made in favor of adopting this principle instead of the distance principle.

There is no doubt that American railway managers have failed to discern the possibilities of the passenger traffic as a source of income. Their minds have been so exclusively fixed upon the freight business, and we may say, upon the long-distance through-freight business, that they have been blind to the possibilities of profit in the development of the passenger traffic and of local freight business.

Of course from an economic point of view the whole possibility of going over to the system of uniform rates for passengers and freight, independent of distance, turns at bottom upon the possible increase of the business itself, and it must be confessed that at this time any set of railroad managers who should adopt this reform would be

walking by faith instead of by sight. That, of course, is of itself no argument against the wisdom or feasibility of adopting such a reform. On the contrary, the great changes and improvements which have come about in questions of public policy have been the result of such faith, of such intuitive insight and foresight, rather than of timid and overcautious experimentation. But those who believe in the possibility of the reform need not be surprised at the conservatism of practical railroad managers on this subject. There is little doubt, however, of a steady development in the direction indicated by the author of this book, unless our ideas as to the social function and possibility of the railway and its management should develop along entirely different lines from those which seem likely now. In spite of its brevity the book gives the best account of the movement for a reform in our freight and passenger tariff policy and the best argument in its behalf which have thus far been given in English.

• EDMUND J. JAMES.

*The Evolution of the Constitution of the United States.* By SYDNEY GEORGE FISHER. Philadelphia: The J. B. Lippincott Co., 1897.

"If I find on American soil the footprints of a man, and wish to discover whence he came, I surely ought not to assume at once that he is a foreigner, and take the next steamer for England or Holland, to see if I can find footprints over there that are like his. . . . for it may be that he is a native." With this for his text, and the growth of American institutions for his topic, Mr. Fisher has given us a brief, but comprehensive, study of the sources of our national constitution. He summons before him the various theories on this subject, the English, the Dutch, the ancient Greek, and even Mr. Gladstone's memorable dictum; he examines each with a critical, and often a hostile, eye, and finds them all wanting. These critical chapters, while not well condensed, contain much that is valuable. Having disposed of these theories of the foreign origin of our institutions, the author next turns to American sources, and in three excellent chapters, one on "Evolution from the Colonial Charters," and two on the "Evolution of Federalism," he shows the direct influence exerted on our constitutional development by the experience of the colonies and states. In this part of the work the author is at his best; he portrays most accurately the growth of the legislative, executive and judicial departments of the federal government from the colonial charters, and shows with a clearness that is almost startling, the logical growth of the federal idea through the innumerable plans of union. These plans begin with the New England

Union in 1643, and include the drafts and frames of government of Charles II., James II., William Penn, Charles D'Avenant, Robert Livingston, Earl of Stair, Daniel Coxe, Benjamin Franklin, Peters, Hutchinson, Johnson, Drayton, Noah Webster, and the various suggestions in this line offered in the convention. One of the most interesting parts of the work is the discussion of the sources of Puritan ideas on government. There were, says Mr. Fisher, three different sets of conditions, of climate, soil, character of Indians, etc., in the territory to be settled, making three distinct regions, New England, the Middle Provinces, and the South. Corresponding to these three sections we find, says the author, three different forms of local government arising, and therefore since the character of the immigrants was, in general at least, the same, we must account for the differences in governmental ideas almost entirely by these differences in physical environment. But was the character of the immigrants the same? Certainly our histories would make us believe that the Puritan settlers were mostly middle-class folk and tradesmen, while the immigration into Virginia and Carolina was largely made up of younger sons of the nobility, of mere adventurers and idlers. If this be true then Mr. Fisher must admit that a powerful influence was exerted on the formation of plantations, and of the parish-county form of government by the character of the population, but this he could safely do without modifying in essential particulars his contention that it was American conditions, and not English traditions which gave rise to our systems of local administration and eventually to the peculiar organization of our national government. Obviously the author's views stand in marked contrast to the usually accepted doctrine as expounded by Bryce, Stevens, Taylor, Howard and a host of others, who have written on our local as well as our federal constitutional development. It seems highly probable that the light of future research will lead to the rejection of both sides of the controversy as half-truths or extremes. On the one hand the ultra-English tendency which persists in tracing all important features of our institutions to their "English originals" must be regarded as definitely refuted by Mr. Fisher, who shows the influence of physical environment and, above all, the application of colonial experience in the make-up of the federal constitution. On the other hand Mr. Fisher certainly underestimates the influence of race traditions and inclinations when he excludes from calculation the democratic tendencies of the Anglo-Saxons, their undoubted political genius and the influence which these would naturally exert on the formation of a peculiar form of government more or less similar to that obtaining in the mother country. In one sense our institutions are English in that they were erected by Englishmen, with English habits



of thought; in another, they are not English because they were influenced in a greater degree by the circumstances of time and place, by environment.

The arrangement of the work is not all that could be desired. It would have been more helpful to the reader had the author's theory of our constitutional development been placed in its logical sequence after the critical portions of the work. It is also to be regretted that the author has devoted one-sixth of his entire book to a refutation of Campbell's theory regarding the Dutch sources of the constitution. Mr. Campbell's theory has already served its term as the literary punching-bag for writers and speakers in this field, and it has been hit so often and so hard that it no longer rebounds properly. In conclusion, the reader, if he be a student of constitutional history, must feel grateful for the clear and forcible explanation of the influence of natural surroundings on the formation of governmental systems, since it is from this point of view that we have most to expect in the future study of our institutions.

JAMES T. YOUNG.

*University of Pennsylvania.*

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*Geschichte und System der Eisenbahnbenutzung im Kriege.* Ein eisenbahn-technisches und militärisches Hülfsbuch. By Dr. JOESTEN. Pp. 88. Leipzig. Deutsche Verkehrs-Blaetter, 1896.

In Great Britain and the United States the development of railroads has been primarily determined by industrial conditions, while military considerations have played but a secondary rôle. On the continent of Europe, however, the location of railroads, and the manner of their construction and operation, have been influenced by the probable demands to be made upon them in time of war. Railroads have acted upon the military, somewhat as they have upon the industrial organization of European states; armies have become differentiated, and a division of labor has been systematically carried out upon a large scale. Armies have become greater and their movements quicker, and wars have become more rapid and destructive but less frequent in consequence.

The writer of this volume is a recognized authority on the subject of the military use of railroads. Under the pseudonym of Miles Ferrarius, he has already contributed several books and some fifty articles to the literature of the subject. In the present book, Dr. Joesten draws attention to the importance of railways in mobilizing armies at the outbreak of a war, and in maintaining the forces during its continuance. Such is the rapidity of mobilization of the armies of to-day

that the loss of a few hours may be fatal to the success of a whole campaign. This is the chief employment for military railroads, but they may also be used in provisioning the army, and in bearing away wounded and prisoners. For purely tactical purposes, the use of railroads is more limited; since the conveyance of troops upon the field is dangerous and even ruinous, unless the road is quite secure from attack, but circular railways, for the defence of extensive fortifications, have been of great service and may be a salient feature in future campaigns. Dr. Joesten gives an admirable historical account of the military use of railroads from the campaigns of 1848 and 1849 to the Franco-Prussian war, but is guilty of one or two needlessly prolix digressions. The book concludes with a systematic account of the military organization of the railroads in Germany, France, Russia, Austria-Hungary and Italy.

WALTER E. WEYL.

Philadelphia.

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*Conscience et Volonté sociales.* Par J. Novicow. Bibliothèque Sociologique Internationale. Pp. 380. Price, 6 francs. Paris: V. Girard & E. Brière, 1897.

This is a fascinating book to any one interested at all in social philosophy. It is an attempt to construct, in rough outline at least, a social psychology. The subject is fresh and the author's style so clear that one is carried along with ease and interest from beginning to end. Alas, when he has finished, the reader feels that the hopes that have been raised by the proposed solution of many knotty problems are vain. With all the array of interesting facts, to a consideration of which we are treated, there is much to wish for in the reasoning and method of discussion. The author accepts the organic theory of society in all its literalness and explains and defends it in his introductory chapters and in his concluding one with admirable clearness. He is right in maintaining that we must, in order to refute a theory, meet it with a counter theory, but not correct in thinking that the idea of unity in the universe and in the laws governing it, forces us to believe that human beings in their relations to each other are parts of a biological organism working out a life of its own. He is also asking too much of us when he says that because the organic theory brings sociology into relation with more general sciences it therefore contains a greater sum of truth than other theories of society, which is the test he has previously established of a good and acceptable theory. This is

poor reasoning and is accompanied by a loose use of terms, as for example in the use of the words "general science."

His answers to some of the opponents of the organic theory, and especially in commenting on M. Leroy-Beaulieu's criticisms, are often well taken, but this negative proof does not help to establish the positive of the theory M. Novicow defends. His whole argument that the organic theory can be used as a support for absolute individualism is about as unscientific an appeal to reason as the misuse of the theory with which he charges the socialists.

One of the most interesting parts of the volume, to most readers will be that in which the position of those who accept the organic theory *in toto* is explained. With this established to the satisfaction of the author, his method renders the remainder of the book a little curious and one must hand it over for criticism to a psychologist. On almost every topic the process or mechanism by which the individual mind acts is explained, and then comes the phrase "just so in society" forces A and B work to produce result C, etc. One suspects at times that the cards are packed to produce such neat results. The attempt to establish fixed laws to read in good form is sometimes more satisfactory than the following, where on page 243 we are told that the individual is interested only in those things of which he can form some mental representation or picture; therefore, the journalist gives most of his space to commonplace and vulgar things and to acts of celebrities, sovereigns, ministers, comedians, etc. On this basis, "one can formulate as a law the following proposition: the facts which attract the daily attention of society are in inverse ratio to their importance." A few pages farther on we are informed, likewise in italics, that there is a second law depending on this, namely: "the faster a fact passes out of social consciousness the less important is it for society."

M. Novicow has some interesting views on democracy which we cannot here discuss. He believes in an élite in every society made up of the wealthy and cultured who work for the good of society and who in the aggregate constitute the social mind, or, as he terms it, *le sensorium social*. His attempt to estimate the numerical strength of this element leads him even to beg the reader's pardon for introducing so unsatisfactory a discussion; it would have been better to have omitted the chapter.

All the faults of the book are due to the false basis on which it rests and the foolish method which the author is forced to follow after giving such unqualified adherence to the organic theory. He has gathered much good material and is an observing student of social phenomena; if he will only throw off the self-imposed

shackles and discuss social phenomena as such with all the simplicity and devotion with which he treats his pet organic idea at present, he will attain more satisfactory results.

SAMUEL McCUNE LINDSAY.

*The Chances of Death, and Other Studies in Evolution.* By KARL PEARSON, M. A., F. R. S., Professor of Applied Mathematics in University College, London, etc. Two volumes, with illustrations. Pp. 388 and 460. Price, \$8.00. London and New York: Edward Arnold, 1897.

The essays collected in these volumes embrace a wide variety of topics. The titles of the studies, which range from "Monte Carlo Roulette" to "Politics and Science" and to "Passion Plays," suggest the light and graceful touch of the man of letters rather than the severer labor of the man of science. One may seek in vain in the list of titles for plan, unity and connection. Indeed, so little has the author done to give his work the appearance of coherency, that one is disposed to assume an intuitional obscurity in this respect.

The bond of union between the various studies lies in the essential oneness of the mental attitude with which the author approaches the various subjects which receive his attention. The principle of evolution is the formula of interpretation, which, properly applied, enables us to reconstruct the world of the past, to understand the world of the present and even to catch glimpses of the future. Thus it is applied in these writings which so justify their title of studies in evolution. How much connection there should be between productions published together and launched into the world between the same covers, will probably always be in dispute. But it is recognized as reasonable that such productions shall reveal the author, with his mental traits, his habit of mind and thought. We expect such productions to show themselves fruits of the same soil. Despite the somewhat motley aspect of their outward garb and designation, the essays of Professor Pearson reveal a strong inner kinship which amply justifies their publication in the present form.

The studies included in these volumes are twelve in number. In "The Chances of Death" and in "Monte Carlo Roulette" the author discusses statistical probability with its relation to the evolutionary problem of variation. In "Reproductive Selection" and "Variation in Man and Woman" he deals with questions of physical anthropology. In the series of essays in the second volume, "Woman as a Witch," "Ashiepatle" and "Kindred Group Marriage," we have

a study of folk-lore and philology for the indications of the evolution of society from a primitive organization on the basis of mother right, while in the essay upon "Passion Plays" we are shown the gradual unfolding of the religious conceptions of the Middle Ages. Two essays, "Socialism and Natural Selection," and "Women and Labor," seek light upon the probable future development of the race from a consideration of present social conditions, while in "Politics and Science" and in "Reaction" we have a fierce polemic in support of the position of modern science against recent attacks upon its rationality. In summarizing the contents of the two volumes we have not held to the order in which the essays are printed, as it fails to reveal any principle of arrangement.

The studies included in these volumes are studies of human evolution. They are the application of the formulæ of the natural scientist to problems of social interest. The student will find in them forcible presentations in vigorous language of some of the current problems of research, which lie on the unsurveyed borderland between the sciences. Of the contents of the various studies it would be useless to speak in further detail. They are to the author, simply illustrations of the underlying principle of evolution. He is concerned less with the matter investigated than with the point of view. In enforcing and illustrating this mental attitude, which sees in evolution, in its mathematical, its biological and historical forms the key for the interpretation of all knowledge, lies the chief reason for the separate publication of these popular essays and papers. The object has been well accomplished, for the terse practical style of the essays cannot fail to retain the attention of the reader, while the contents must stimulate him to further study. The typographical excellence of the books makes reading easy, but it may debar the books from having so large a circulation as might be wished.

ROLAND P. FALKNER.

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*The General Property Tax.* By CARL C. PLEHN, Ph. D. Pp. 79.

Price, 50 cents. American Economic Association Studies, Vol. II, No. 3. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1897.

It is a commonplace of American financial science that the general property tax has proved a failure under modern conditions. Professor Plehn's essay is a demonstration of this fact in the particular instance of California. Having proved it for California he concludes, not without reason, that the condemnation of the tax applies equally well to other states. Of California he says, "In the first place she has

given this tax an uninterrupted trial for forty-seven years, long enough to have tested its full possibilities. In the second place she has had, during most of the time, and now has, one of the best property tax laws ever written. . . . In the third place the conditions have been as favorable to the administration of the law here as they can be anywhere in the United States. If the tax has failed in California it is safe to conclude that it was mainly because of its faults in principle."

Under the California law the property tax is a *general* property tax; all kinds of property are included, both tangible and intangible. In the statutory definition of what constitutes property, moneys, credits, bonds, stocks, dues and franchises are included,—in fact, all things capable of private ownership. Of course, the property of a community, under such a definition, does not coincide with its economic wealth. The natural result is double taxation. To avoid this, California has adopted in the case of mortgages a somewhat unusual method of deduction. The mortgagee is taxed on the mortgage at its face value, and this valuation is deducted from the assessed value of the property and the mortgagor is taxed for the remainder. The mortgage from a legal point of view is treated as realty with a taxable *situs* where the mortgaged land lies. This method is not original with California; in fact it exists or has existed in several other states as well as in the antipodes. The merit of the method lies in the fact that the tax is levied with some reference to the ability of the parties. It has been criticised on practical grounds. It is said that the mortgagor is compelled in consequence to pay a higher rate of interest. Professor Plehn takes this view, although he admits that the method is ideally correct. He does not produce any new evidence on the matter, and at present, it must be confessed, the evidence is conflicting, but he concludes that under "present conditions in California by far the best plan would be to tax the owner for the whole of the property and to exempt the mortgagee."

Regarding double taxation Professor Plehn says: "Double taxation is very nearly avoided in California. The treatment of mortgages and of debts, secured by deeds of trust or in other ways, as representing a part ownership of the property given as security, prevents one form of double taxation common in other states. Debts due residents of the state and taxed as solvent credits of the creditor may be deducted from solvent credits of the debtor. But there is still double taxation in the following cases: (1) Personal property, such as stocks and bonds of corporations whose tangible property is taxed in other states, are taxable if the owner resides in California. (2) No deduction is allowed for debt except in the two above mentioned cases."



This statement seems not to take account of the fact that the bondholders in domestic corporations are taxable on their bonds, although the corporation itself is taxable to the full extent on its property. This discrimination between public and private mortgages was called to the attention of the courts in the case of *Cen. P. Ry. Co. vs. Bd. of Equalization* (60 Cal. 35), but it was upheld as lawful.

There is likewise a great inequality and irregularity in the taxation of franchises. In California some of the railroads have taken advantage of the fact that they received their incorporation from the federal government to claim complete exemption from the tax on franchises. On the other hand, some corporations are taxed on their franchises, although they possess no valuable privileges. Professor Plehn rightly asserts that there is a distinction between franchises in the legal view and valuable franchises which alone are properly objects of taxation.

In regard to the practical work of assessment of real estate great variations exist. Professor Plehn says that these inequalities may be divided into *three* classes, but he proceeds to enumerate *four*, viz.: those arising (1) between localities, (2) between rural and urban property, (3) between land and improvements, (4) between individuals. These, of course, are often combined. As usual, the farmer appears to be the chief sufferer.

The chief indictment against the general property tax is that it does not reach intangible personal property. This defect is very conspicuous in California. Real estate bears a constantly increasing ratio of the burden. One of the most interesting and instructive evidences of this failure to reach personalty is given by Professor Plehn in the comparison of the assessed valuation of buildings and movables with the underwriters' reports of loss by fire. In the former case the value of the movables amounted to but 50 per cent of the realty, while in the latter case it was nearly three times as much. In a paper of some eighty pages it is difficult to treat such a large subject as the complete tax system of a state, yet Professor Plehn has given an admirable statement of its chief features and most glaring defects. The essay appears to have been written with a purpose of promoting reform, but no proposals of a positive character are made. The determination of this question is attended with not a little difficulty, but perhaps Professor Plehn will address himself to its solution.

Colorado College.

FRANCIS WALKER.

*Der Clearing und Giro-Verkehr in Oesterreich-Ungarn und im Auslande.* Von Dr. HEINRICH RAUCHBERG. Pp. 212. Vienna: Hoelder, 1897.

In his most recent work Professor Rauchberg gives an excellent

picture of the banking organization of Austria-Hungary, which throws an instructive light upon the commercial and industrial methods of that country. Through comparisons with other nations, and especially with the German Empire, the author shows very successfully the degree of banking development which has been attained by Austria.

The barbarous terminology of German banking practice obscures somewhat for the foreign reader the full significance of the picture which is unrolled. Suffice it to say that the object of the work is to determine the extent to which payments are effected through credit instruments without the intervention of money. The distinction made in the title is between such transactions as can be regulated by book transfers of a single bank and its branches (*Giro-geschäfte*) and such as require the intervention of the clearing house for the reciprocal compensation of the obligations of different banks. In the United States, where no single bank dominates the banking business of the country, such a distinction is unfamiliar. In Austria-Hungary and in Germany, on the other hand, it grows out of the supremacy in the money market of one or two institutions, notably the national banks of these states.

The purpose of the author in the present work is not to describe the technical operations involved in effecting payments without the use of money, but to ascertain the development and extent of this practice. He shows incidentally that an admirable banking organization has been effected in Austria, and that a well-planned machinery exists for economizing the use of money. By a resort to the statistics of the banks, which he handles with a master hand, he shows what progress has been attained, notably in the past decade. But when a comparison is made between Austrian achievements and those of other nations it appears that little has been done to utilize the existing facilities. Unwearied efforts have been made by the banking authorities of recent years to introduce the use of checks. Despite the increase in their use, the fact that payment for more than half the checks is made over the bank counters in actual money, shows clearly that they do not fulfill their true function. Nor can it be otherwise while the use of checks is confined to so small a percentage of the people. It appears clearly from the innumerable tables which the author presents, that while Austria-Hungary possesses the form of a credit organization it lacks its spirit.

It is not the special position of the Austro-Hungarian Empire in this respect which will be of chief interest to the American reader, but rather the general view which is given of the banking practice of Continental Europe as compared with the usages of Great Britain

and the United States. Nowhere on the Continent do we see the use of credit so widely diffused as in the latter countries. On the Continent it is confined to the commercial and industrial chiefs in economic activity and has not permeated into the mass of the people. The facts brought forward so clearly in Professor Rauchberg's book give us instructive glimpses into the economic organization of industry and commerce in the countries of southern and eastern Europe. They enable us to appreciate the greater expansive power and at the same time the greater sensitiveness of economic movements in Great Britain and in our own country.

ROLAND P. FALKNER.

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*Neue Beiträge zur Frage der Arbeitslosen-Versicherung.* By Dr. GEORG SCHANZ. Pp. viii, 216. Price, 4 marks. Berlin: Carl Heymanns, 1897.

Professor Schanz is already well known as an authority on the subject of labor insurance, from his study of the problem of insurance against non-employment. His book on this question, which appeared in 1895, contained a very careful summary of the various proposals for such insurance, and a good discussion of the world's experience with such insurance down to that date. It will be remembered that Professor Schanz was negative in his criticism of this form of compulsory state insurance and prophesied its ultimate failure as a practicable measure. He proposed, however, a scheme for a compulsory saving fund under state insurance management, to which both laborers and employers should contribute a small sum weekly up to a certain minimum limit, amounting to about \$25. When this point is reached, the obligation to add to this fund ceases. The laborer has absolute control over the spending of this money in times when he is out of employment. But whenever the amount to his credit falls below the 100 mark line he is obliged to make weekly contributions to bring it up to this sum, as soon as he receives wages.

Dr. Schanz makes out a strong case in favor of some such plan as the only means of overcoming the almost insurmountable difficulties connected with compulsory state insurance. The present little volume is a series of essays dealing with many sides of this question; some of the chapters have already appeared in periodical literature, but most of them are now new. In the first place he takes up and answers the objections which were made to his plan on compulsory saving as a substitute for compulsory insurance. He then reviews the latest experience, coming down to about March, 1897, of the compulsory insurance schemes in Switzerland. He deals only with the insurance

against non-employment, not with the insurance against sickness, old age, etc., and also with a period prior to a discontinuance of this form of insurance which has since taken place in most of the Swiss cantons. He finds much to criticise in the experience obtained in St. Gallen, Basel and Berne. He also discusses the proposition looking to some establishment of compulsory insurance in Cologne and in Stuttgart. The latter was a far less democratic measure than most of such schemes have been, and because of the fact that it carries only a high class of risks has been somewhat more successful. A chapter is devoted to the Workingman's Saving Fund, in Bologna, and the effort to enlist wider circles and in some cases a compulsory saving in the saving funds of Düsseldorf, Geneva and St. Gallen.

Three exceedingly interesting chapters deal with the development of saving funds in the labor unions, and the attitude of the various political parties in Germany to the question of insurance against non-employment, and lastly to the latest statistical data on the question of the unemployed in Germany. The last chapter will, therefore, interest a wider circle of readers than those who care to study the question of insurance, in that it throws much light on the question of industrial development and industrial displacement through non-employment in Germany at the present time.

Dr. Schanz has not in this volume gone into the theoretical question of the effect of such insurance on the wages problem, on the standard of living, and especially its direct effect on the competition between the less skilled and the more skilled within any particular department of the labor market. These questions are barely touched upon here and there throughout this last volume, and none too fully in the author's larger work. The whole interest of the student of economics, and even of sociology, when dealing with this problem of insurance against non-employment, must centre in these questions. While most of the material in the two volumes already mentioned is of more direct service to those engaged in the administration of practical efforts along these lines, Dr. Schanz might well give us another volume dealing exclusively with the theoretical basis of insurance against non-employment.

SAMUEL McCUNE LINDSAY.

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*The Educational Value of Children's Playgrounds.* By STOYAN VASIL TSANOFF. Pp. vi, 203. Price, \$1.00. Philadelphia: 1305 Arch street. 1897.

Mr. Tsanoff, who is General Secretary of the Culture Extension League of Philadelphia, has been a close student for several years of

the important subject of which he treats, and is therefore eminently fitted for his task. His work is the first systematic treatise which takes a comprehensive view of the entire field under examination. Mr. Tsanoff objects most strenuously to the usual estimate of children's playgrounds as a means of physical development only. The child does develop his physical side in romp and play, says the author, but he also does something more. Play in fact exercises an even more powerful influence on the child's moral character than does work. The reasoning is, briefly, that character is but a "bundle of habits;" habits, however, are formed by continued repetition of an act or prolonged imitation of an example. Now we repeat and imitate that in which we have pleasure or interest, and during the period of childhood we are certainly most interested in play, so that the only remaining question is, by what kinds of play are children most interested and influenced? These, the author finds, are out-door sports. Hence the inference that such sports must necessarily exercise the most important influence on character. The author next discusses the ordinary agencies of character-formation, viz., the school, the home and the church, but finds that in spite of excellent schools, refined and attractive home, and constantly improving church influences, the rising generations show no proportionate improvement in character. Their interest and attention are centred in play, and it is therefore through their games that we must influence and upbuild them. After an "appeal to the responsible," *i. e.*, educators, press, government, church and philanthropists in general, the work closes with an interesting discussion of the true province of the church.

In criticism, it may be said that the author certainly underestimates the value of the church, home and school in the formation of character; none of these is without a distinct and highly important influence on the development of habit. On the other hand, the author is highly deserving of recognition for his clear and convincing proof of the equally important value of play in this regard. Mr. Tsanoff goes even farther than Froebel in this direction, and perhaps it would not be too much to say that he shows that, at certain periods of the child's life, at least, the influence of play equals that of the other three factors combined.

JAMES T. YOUNG.

*University of Pennsylvania.*

## ASSOCIATION MEETINGS.

### BRITISH ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE.

For the second time in its history the British Association met in Canada at Toronto, from August 19 to 25. In the Section of Economics and Statistics, the address of the President, Professor E. C. K. Gonner, of University College, Liverpool, was devoted to the "Labor Question." The following papers were also read: "The History and Policy of Trade Combination in Canada," by W. H. Moore, B. A.; "Recent Aspects of Profit Sharing," by Professor N. P. Gilman; "A Consideration of State Monopolies, Illustrated by the Tobacco Monopoly in Austria," by M. Wickett, Ph. D.; "Statistics of Deaf-Mutism in Canada," by Mr. George Johnson, "Some Fallacies in the Theory of the Distribution of Wealth," by Professor A. T. Hadley; "Canada and the Silver Question," by Professor J. Davidson; "The Origin of the Dollar," by Professor W. G. Sumner; "Silver and Copper in China," by Dr. J. Edkins. "Characteristics of Canadian Economic History," by Professor A. Shortt; "Economic History of Canada," by Mr. J. C. Hopkins; "National Policy and International Trade," by Mr. Edwin Cannan; "Public Finance, with Special Reference to Canada," by Mr. J. L. McDougall; "Crown Revenues in Canada, 1763-1847," by Professor J. A. McLean; "The Evolution of the Metropolis (New York)" and "Problems of Municipal Government," by Mr. W. H. Hale; "Local Difference in Discount Rates in the United States," by Professor R. M. Breckenridge; "The Conception of Justice in Taxation," by Professor Carl C. Plehn; "The Economic Value of Rhodesia," by Mr. Selous; "Economic Aspects of the Workmen's Compensation Bill," by Mr. J. R. Macdonald; "The Relation of the Employment of Women and Children to that of Men," by Hon. Carroll D. Wright; "The Theory of Economic Choices," by Professor F. H. Giddings; "Reactions from Economic Freedom in the United States," by Mr. R. R. Bowker; "Some Economic Notes on Gold Mining in Canada," by Professor J. Mavor.

The proceedings of the Section of Economics and Statistics are published in the substantial volume which embodies the annual proceedings of the British Association. As a rule the papers are printed



in abstract only and not in full. The report is issued by the Association and can be obtained from the Assistant General Secretary, Mr. G. Griffith, College Road, Harrow, England.

## SCOTTISH SOCIETY OF ECONOMISTS.

A number of persons interested in the study of economics organized a Scottish Society of Economists on the twenty-ninth of June, 1897. Professor J. Shield Nicholson was elected President, and Mr. John H. Romanes, whose address is 44 Queen street, Edinburgh, was chosen Secretary. The Society proposes to hold monthly meetings during the winter for the reading and discussion of papers on economic and kindred subjects. No program in regard to publication has yet been formulated.

## AMERICAN SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.

The annual meeting of the American Social Science Association was held, according to the usual custom, at Saratoga, N. Y. The Association was in session from August 30 until September 3. The program included an annual address by Hon. S. E. Baldwin entitled "Absolute Power: An American Institution." The proceedings of the departments were as follows: Department of Health—Remarks by Stephen Smith, M. D., of New York, on "The Importance of a High Grade of Physical Health in the Following Classes of Inmates of Public Institutions with a View to their Cure, Development, or Reformation, and the Best Method of Securing such Health." Papers read by P. M. Wise, M. D., on "The Insane;" W. P. Spratling, M. D., "The Epileptic;" J. C. Carson, M. D., "The Feeble-minded;" J. F. Fitzgerald, M. D., "The Idiotic;" H. D. Wey, M. D., "The Young Convict." Department of Jurisprudence—"Our Foreign Policy, and its Relation to Domestic Problems," by Professor T. S. Woolsey, of New Haven, Conn.; "The Attitude of Courts toward Labor Questions, and the Bearing of Our Constitutions upon Labor Legislation," by F. J. Stimson, Esq., of Boston; "How Far May We Abolish Prisons?" by Mr. W. M. F. Round, of New York; address on "John Marshall," by Hon. Henry B. Brown, Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States. Department of Finance and Social Economy—"The Progress in Social Economy since 1874," by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Concord Mass.; "Causes of the Fall in Prices since 1872," by Professor J. W. Jenks, of Cornell University; "The Production and Consumption of the Precious Metals," by Professor S. M. Lindsay, of the University of Pennsylvania; "Trade Schools," by Joseph Lee, Esq., of Brookline, Mass.; discussion of the "George Junior Republic," led by Professor Jenks, and a paper on "Constructive Phylogeny," by Smith Baker, M. D., of Utica, N. Y.

Mr. Frank B. Sanborn retired from the office of General Secretary, which he has filled with so much ability since the foundation of the organization. The officers for the ensuing year are: President, Simeon E. Baldwin, LL. D., New Haven, and General Secretary, Frederick Stanley Root, New Haven.

The proceedings of the Association are published in an annual volume entitled the *Journal of Social Science*.

#### AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE.

During the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, held in Detroit in the early part of August, 1897, the following papers were read in the Section of Economics and Statistics: "Improvident Civilization," by Mr. R. T. Colburn, Elizabeth, N. J.; "Racial Deterioration: the Increase of Suicide," by Mr. Lawrence Irwell, Buffalo, N. Y.; "Wheat Consumption in the United States," by Mr. Henry Farquhar, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.; "The Municipal System of Ontario," by C. C. James, M. A., Toronto; "The New Canadian Tariff," by Professor James Mavor, Toronto; "Suggestions for an International Conference on Diversity of Languages," by Mr. R. T. Colburn, Elizabeth, N. J.; "Tariffs and Trade," by Mr. Archibald Blue, Bureau of Mines, Toronto; "The Course of Ontario Agriculture during the Past Ten Years" by C. C. James, M. A., Toronto; "The United States Idea in Laying Out the Public Lands and the Evils Resulting Therefrom," by Mr. B. W. De Courcy, Tacoma, Wash.; "Labor Restrictions as Potent Factors in Social Evolution," by Dr. Charles Porter Hart, Wyoming, Ohio; "The Competition of Gratuitous Workers," by Miss Mary Foster, Buffalo, N. Y.; "The Economic Position of Women," by Miss Mary Foster; "Contributions to the Development of Meteorology by the Smithsonian Institution," by Dr. Marcus Benjamin, Washington, D. C.; "Civil Service Reform: (1) Conflict with the Spoils System in the State of New York, (2) Relation of the System to the Question of State and Municipal Ownership of Quasi Public Works," by William H. Hale, Ph. D., Brooklyn, N. Y.; "A Method of Preserving the Natural Fertility of the Land," by Mr. B. W. De Courcy; "The True Meaning of the Sugar Schedule of the New Tariff," by Professor H. W. Wiley, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.

The papers will be published in the annual volume of the Proceedings of this Association as usual. Professor F. W. Putnam, of Cambridge, who was elected President for the ensuing meeting, will continue to act as Permanent Secretary during the coming year.

## NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

This important body held its twenty-fourth national conference at Toronto, July 7 to 14, 1897. Like its predecessors this meeting was large and enthusiastic, a great gathering of earnest men and women bound together by a common interest in the welfare of humanity. As at previous sessions the program was long and interesting. Through the arrangement of sections a large number of papers were brought before the conference. We can only call attention here to the leading papers and addresses read in the general sessions. Apart from the opening session of a formal nature, at which the president, Alexander Johnson, of Fort Wayne, Ind., delivered his annual address, the general sessions were in the charge of various committees. The program of these sessions was as follows: Committee on Soldiers' and Sailors' Homes,—The Nation and the Veteran, Mr. H. A. Castle; Limitations of the Soldiers' Home System, Mr. C. E. Faulkner; Administration of Soldiers' Homes, Mr. M. F. Force. Committee on Juvenile Reformatories,—Seven Years in a Juvenile Reformatory, Mr. T. H. Briggs; Cultivation of Habits of Thrift, Mrs. M. E. Fairbanks; Do Reform Schools Reform; Mr. L. D. Drake. Committee on Child Saving,—Report of the Committee, Mr. C. E. Faulkner; Sunday School as a Child Saving Mission, Rev. D. R. Milner; Prevention of Abandonment or Neglect of Children, Rev. J. R. Black. Committee on Prison Reform,—Need of Radical Prison Reform, Mr. P. C. Garrett; The Probation System, Mr. C. T. Lewis; The Indeterminate Sentence, Mr. W. T. Spalding; European Prison Policies, Mr. S. J. Barrows. Committee on Municipal and County Charities,—Nativities of the Inmates in the Public Institutions of New York City, Mr. B. C. Matthews; Work of the Charities Aid Association of New York State, Mr. H. Folks. Committee on the Care of the Insane and Epileptics,—Relation of the Public to the Insane, Mr. D. Clark; After Care of Recovered and Convalescent Insane Patients, Mr. R. Dewey; Care of Epileptics, Mr. H. C. Rutter; Education of the Epileptic, Mr. Wm. P. Spratting. Committee on Organization of Charity,—Organized and Unorganized Charity, Mr. A. O. Crozier; Abolish Charity by Removing Causes of Poverty, Hon. H. S. Pin-gree; Developing the Social Updraft, Mr. F. G. Peabody; Abolition of Poverty, Mr. S. S. Craig; Organization of Charity in its Practical Bearings, Mr. N. S. Rosenau. Committee on Social Settlements,—Addresses by Miss J. Addams, Rev. R. N. Ely, Rev. Percy Alden. Committee on Care of the Feeble Minded, Present Status of the Feeble Minded, Prevention, Mr. F. M. Powell; State Regulation

of Marriage, Mrs. K. G. Wells; Child Study as Applied to the Defectives, by Mr. W. O. Krohn.

The annual volumes of the conference proceedings have become a standard source of information in regard to all questions in the broad field of charities and correction. They contain not only the general papers but an account of the no less important but more specialized work of the numerous sections. The success of the conference and the position which it has taken are largely due to the untiring efforts of its able general Secretary, Mr. Hastings H. Hart, of St. Paul, Minn. The Annual Proceedings, a volume of from five to six hundred pages, is published by Geo. H. Ellis & Co., Boston.

#### SAVINGS BANKS ASSOCIATION OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

The fourth annual convention of this organization was held in New York May 20, 1897. The proceedings published by the Association contain discussions of "Postal Savings Banks;" a report upon "Savings Banks Legislation" in the State of New York; an address by Hon. William L. Trenholm, former Comptroller of the Currency, on "Labor and Capital," and an address by Hon. Edward Atkinson on "One Function of the Savings Bank: Its Importance as a Lender or Distributer of Capital."

The officers of the Association are: President, Mr. John Harsen Rhoades, President of the Greenwich Savings Bank, N. Y., and Secretary, Mr. William G. Conklin, of the Franklin Savings Bank, N. Y.

#### UNITED STATES LEAGUE OF LOCAL BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS.

The fifth annual meeting of this organization was held in Detroit July 28 and 29, 1897. In addition to the more formal proceedings of the organization the following papers, describing some of the economic as well as technical aspects of building and loan associations, were read: "Security Found in Local Building Societies," by Mr. Addison R. Burke; "The Moral Effect Upon the Community of Systematic Saving," by Mr. J. Warren Bailey; "The Value of Permanence and Stability in Building and Loan Associations," by Judge I. H. C. Royce; "The Reserve or Contingent Fund," by Mr. Joseph H. Paist; "Some Fruits of National Methods," by Mr. Thomas J. Fitzmorris; "Collective Capital," by Mr. William C. Sheppard; "Building and Loan Associations of Kansas," by Mr. C. S. Hartough; "Co-operation," by Mr. Henry M. Walker; "In the Home Idea is the Brightest Hope of Mankind," by Mr. Frank L. Wells; "What Local Building Associations Have Done for Philadelphia and Her

People," by Mr. Joseph K. Gamble; "The Home," by Mr. William H. Page; "Opposition to and Adverse Criticism of Local Building and Loan Associations," by Mr. J. W. Sutton; "A Few Notes on the Management of a Co-operative Bank," by Mr. D. Eldredge; "Rights and Duties of Building and Loan Association Stockholders and Their Relation to Creditors," by Mr. A. J. Duncan; "The Services and Influence of Our State Leagues in Shaping and Guiding Building Association Legislation," by Hon. James Clarency; "Apportionment of Profits," by Mr. Albert S. Barnes; "The Interest Reduction Plan," by Mr. Charles F. Kolb; "A Good Title," by Mr. Samuel S. Gleason.

At the election of officers Mr. Lake W. Sanborn, of Galesburg, Ill., was elected President, and Mr. H. F. Cellarius, whose address is 218 Government Building, Cincinnati, was elected Secretary for the coming year. A report of the proceedings of the convention is published by the society.

## NOTES ON MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

### AMERICAN CITIES.

*National Convention of Mayors and Councilmen.*—The first National Convention of Mayors and Councilmen of cities of the United States was held at Columbus, O., during the four days from September 28 to October 1, inclusive. As a result of this meeting a permanent association has been formed for the purpose of conducting research work and annual discussions on municipal affairs. The general subjects discussed at the meeting were the organization, function and operation of the police and fire departments; the relation of the municipality to the gas and water supply and street railways, and the general subject of street lighting, street cleaning, street paving and drainage. Among the special papers prepared were those by Josiah Quincy, Mayor of Boston, on "Municipal Affairs as Administered in Boston;" Hazen S. Pingree, Governor of Michigan, on "Out-door Relief by Municipalities," and "The Federal Plan of Municipal Government," by Dr. Washington Gladden, of Columbus.

**New York City.**—New York City has within recent years adopted the policy of direct municipal employment in the Street Cleaning Department. The results of this experiment have been very satisfactory, especially in the direction of maintaining satisfactory relations with the men employed. The commissioner of street cleaning has encouraged the formation of a union among the sweepers and drivers. A "Board of Conference," consists of five representatives of this union, the general superintendent of street cleaning, the chief clerk, one district superintendent, one section foreman and one stable foreman. At the meetings of this board "everything connected with the work, the relations with the commissioner and his subordinates, and all questions of discipline, duties, pay, etc., in which they are interested," are discussed with perfect freedom. This board elects a permanent chairman and a secretary; one of these is chosen from the five representatives of the labor union. In case the board cannot come to an agreement, the chairman and secretary argue the case before the commissioner, who is then to give a final decision. This board has been in active operation little over a year. During this period it has been very successful in maintaining amicable relations between the men and the superintending officials.



*Mayoralty Election.* The election of the first mayor for Greater New York has been one of the most interesting in the history of American municipalities. For the first time, the issue between those who believe in independent municipal parties and the regular national and state political organizations, was definitely drawn. The election of 1894, while marking a definite step in this direction, was in no sense conclusive as to the possibility of electing officials on strictly local issues. The union of the Independent Citizens' movement with the regular Republican organization was in the nature of a compromise, and as is the case with most compromises, failed to decide the real issue. Those who have closely watched the reform movement in New York City during the last few years, are of the opinion that the compromise then effected with the Republican party rather weakened than strengthened the development of an independent local party. When, therefore, it became a question of nominating candidates for the now consolidated Greater New York, the feeling of those who had led the reform movement in the previous election was, that the Independent Citizens' party should make the attempt to stand on its own feet unhampered by any alliances with other political organizations. For this purpose a popular organization was formed, embracing members in all parts of the territory of the new municipality. The new organization took the name of Citizens' Union. The spirit that pervaded it from the very beginning was that of complete independence from either of the regularly organized national parties. Before any of the other parties had taken action, the Citizens' Union nominated Hon. Seth Low for mayor, who accepted the nomination. The Union refused to enter into any conferences with the Republican party, which for a time seemed disposed to place Mr. Low on their ticket. As a result of this independent stand taken by the new organization and because of the further declaration that the Citizens' Union intended to nominate candidates for the minor offices, the Republican party determined to place the full quota of its own candidates in the field, and nominated General Benjamin F. Tracy for the mayoralty.

The Tammany organization of the Democratic party, having nominated its candidates, there were three tickets in the field. To add to the complexity and uncertainty of the situation, the Bryan or Silver Democrats nominated Henry George for mayor, and also a full list of candidates for the other offices. Finally, another faction of the Democratic party, known as the O'Brien Democrats, nominated an independent ticket. The large vote cast for the Citizens' Union has proven to the people of New York as well as to the other

cities of the United States, that it is possible to reconcile a large part of our population with the idea that candidates for local office are to be judged on the basis of their fitness for the same, and that the views of candidates are to be judged with reference to local, rather than national or state issues. A victory for this independent municipal party would have been a victory of national rather than local importance. As it is, a strong incentive has been given to similar organizations throughout the country.

**Brooklyn.**—*Consolidation and Brooklyn Finances.*\* The charter of New York, under which Brooklyn will be governed after January 1, provides that the enlarged city shall assume all the debts and obligations of all the communities absorbed. This means that the new city will assume the responsibility of paying the present Brooklyn debt. The charter also provides that the tax rate and assessment shall be uniform throughout the consolidated territory. This means that as Brooklyn's debt is greater in proportion to the assessed value of the property in the city than New York's debt, the taxpayers in the present city of New York will have to pay a part of the Brooklyn debt. As Brooklyn property is assessed on a valuation of 70 per cent and New York property on a valuation of 50 per cent, an equalization of the assessment will benefit Brooklyn taxpayers. It has been estimated that this benefit will amount to \$8 or \$10 on every \$1000 of assessed valuation. In 1898 the people of Brooklyn will pay no taxes. At present Brooklynites pay their taxes in advance at the beginning of the year, in New York taxes are paid at the end of the year after the money (which has been raised on city certificates) has been spent. That taxes may be collected at the same time this adjustment has to be made.

**Philadelphia.**—*Report on Water Supply.* The Director of Public Works has just published an exhaustive report on the water supply of the city. During the last few years the sentiment against the continuance of the present sources of supply has been growing, and a number of investigations have been undertaken with a view to ascertaining other available sources in the vicinity. Surveys have been made of a number of districts, some of which have been reported favorably by committees of councils. In all cases, however, the cost of obtaining pure water from these new districts was not less than \$15,000,000 and in some cases exceeded \$30,000,000. The recent improvement in methods of filtration has again turned attention to the possibilities of the present supply, and has, to a certain extent, reconciled the opponents of the present system with the idea of further utilizing the actual sources.

\* Communication of F. H. Gunnison, Esq.

The Director of Public Works, after careful examination, is led to the conclusion that the "future demands for a municipal water supply will not make it necessary to seek any source other than the waters of the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers." Filtration, in the opinion of the director, has become an absolute necessity, for the water taken from the Delaware river is unfit for use in its natural state. Upon the subject of filtration, the director favors a system of sand filters, to be constructed and owned by the city. As to the cost of construction, the estimates submitted to the department differ greatly. The minimum cost would probably be \$20,000 per million gallons of filtering capacity per twenty-four hours. This includes the cost of the land. Upon this basis a 400,000,000 gallon plant, which would be required by the city, would cost from \$8,000,000 to \$10,000,000. As regards the cost of maintenance, which is an important item in the sand filtration system, one of the companies offers to do the work for \$1.85 per million gallons.

*Leasing of the Gas Works.* For a number of years past offers have been made to the city of Philadelphia by various private corporations looking toward the leasing of the gas works now owned and operated by the city. Although under the city's management the price of gas has been steadily decreasing, it has been felt that the quality was not up to the standard which improved methods of production demand. It was not until recently, however, that the offers were seriously considered, either by councils or the public at large. Within the last few months, however, several powerful corporations have renewed their offers, and not only have these offers been considered by the finance committee of councils, but the committee has favorably recommended one of the propositions for acceptance by the city. The outlook at the present time is that the city's plant will be handed over to a private corporation on a long-term lease. The proposition has aroused considerable opposition among the citizens. The gas works have been in the hands of the city since 1841, but it was not until 1885 that a form of responsible management was adopted. During the period between 1841 and 1885, the management of the gas works was vested in a board of trustees with whose policy councils was unable to interfere. The courts held that to permit the interference of councils would destroy the guarantee of the bondholders who had taken the bonds on the faith of continued management by the board originally vested with the management of the gas works. The period of incompetency and corruption which marked the rule of the Gas Trust, has remained one of the dark chapters in the municipal history of Philadelphia, and accounts to a large extent for the

feeling of distrust of the population toward public management. Since 1885, however, the gas works have been under the control of one of the responsible departments of the city government. Since that time there has been a steady improvement in the quality of gas, while the price has been reduced from \$1.75 to one dollar.

One of the great difficulties with which the Department of Public Works has had to contend, has been the steady refusal of councils to make appropriations sufficient for the improvement of the plant. It is true, that the large indebtedness of the city of Philadelphia, together with the fact that it has nearly reached the limit prescribed in the constitution, offered a certain excuse for the inaction of councils, although a close examination of the facts will show that the excuse has been used to permit private corporations to absorb the most profitable part of the city's gas making. Councils have largely impaired the financial position of the works through contracts with private companies to furnish water-gas at a price far above the cost of manufacture. It is estimated that water-gas can be placed in holders at from twenty to twenty-five cents per thousand cubic feet, whereas the city pays thirty-seven cents. While, therefore, the condition of the gas works, so far as it is unsatisfactory at the present time, is due to the short-sighted policy of councils, the means of improvement are clear to every one, as is also the possibility of making this the most profitable of the city's public works. From a purely business standpoint, therefore, the proposition to lease the city's works ought not to be entertained unless the lessee offers an equivalent for the value of the franchise. The question whether the city should, under any circumstances, divest itself of so distinctly a public function as the supply of gas for public and private purposes, is one into which we cannot enter at present. Suffice it to say that, in addition to the question of possible profit, there is the broader question of the social function of the municipality in the administration of public works of this character. Thus, the experience of the English cities has shown that through the reduction of the price of gas to little more than its cost of production, the city is able to exert a far-reaching influence on the social and industrial life of the community. Thus, with gas at fifty-four cents per thousand cubic feet as in Glasgow, Manchester and Birmingham, the gas stove supplants the wasteful coal stove, and the introduction of the gas-motor furnishes the possibility of successful competition by the small manufacturer as against the large producer. But, even disregarding these more general questions of public policy, none of the offers made up to the present time would assure to the city anything like an adequate return for the franchise of exclusive supply of gas

in a great city like Philadelphia. The offer of one company is as follows: First, the company is to have the exclusive privilege of supplying gas for public and private purposes for a period of thirty years; secondly, the company agrees to expend within three years \$5,000,000 for the alteration, replacement, improvement, maintenance, repair, extension and betterment of the work and at least \$15,000,000 during the period of the lease; third, the company is to supply the city with seven hundred million cubic feet of gas free of charge; fourth, the price of gas is to be gradually reduced during the period of thirty years from \$1 to 75 cents, the reduction to be dependent upon ordinance of councils requiring the same; fifth, in case the price is maintained at \$1, the city is to receive an annual rental of from 10 to 25 cents per thousand cubic feet; sixth, the city of Philadelphia, at the end of the term, namely, December 31, 1927, "to receive the works without charge in the condition of alteration, improvement and change in which the same shall then exist."

A careful examination of the provisions of the lease will show that in most cases the advantages offered are illusory rather than real. The long term of the lease makes it, in effect, a sale of the Gas Works; the provision of expenditure of \$5,000,000 may be practically nullified because of the presence of the word "maintenance," which might mean the ordinary running expenses of the plant. As regards the offer to furnish the city with seven hundred million of cubic feet of gas free of charge, it must be remembered that in 1896 the city used over six hundred and seventy-four million cubic feet, and that with the ordinary rate of increase the year 1897 will bring the public consumption of gas above seven hundred million cubic feet. In other words, from the very beginning of the lease the city will become a purchaser of gas. According to the terms of the proposed lease, the price of gas during the entire period will never go below 75 cents. When it is remembered that a construction company offered to place gas in the holders of the city for 25 cents per thousand cubic feet, and that according to the estimates of experts the cost of distribution should not exceed 10 cents, the enormous profits which the company will derive from the franchise are apparent. That the various corporations are fully aware of the possibility of such profits is proven by the fact that another responsible company offered to abide by all the provisions of the United Gas Improvement Company's offer described above, and in addition to pay to the city annual rentals aggregating \$37,500,000 during the thirty years. Unfortunately, however, the United Gas Improvement Company, for some reason or other, seems to have the exclusive monopoly of the committee's interest and attention.

It is possible that when the leasing ordinance is submitted to the two branches of councils, the provisions may be modified. In fact, the upper branch adopted a resolution to submit the leasing of the works to the people at the Fall election, but the lower body voted against it. Whatever the outcome, the agitation has had the effect of calling the attention of the citizens to the hostile attitude of councils towards the improvement of the gas works. It has aroused an interest in municipal affairs such as Philadelphia has not witnessed for many years. A considerable portion of the population feel that the leasing of the gas works means the abandonment of a distinctly public function; that to this extent it diminishes the prestige of the city government and tends to increase that apathy of the population which has been the cause of so much municipal mismanagement.

**Cleveland.\*—*Street Railway Fares.*** The city administration has precipitated a fight with the street railway companies through the threat to regulate fares. An ordinance was introduced some weeks ago providing for the reduction of fares to three cents on one of the lines. A citizens' committee of five was appointed by the council to confer with the street railroads in the hope of a compromise, but the committee declined to serve. The contest remains the absorbing topic of interest in council proceedings, and at the present writing there is considerable probability that the friends of the ordinance will muster sufficient force to pass it. Meetings have been held almost nightly in the various wards of the city, and an immense amount of popular clamor and enthusiasm has been raised in favor of the ordinance. The railway companies naturally oppose the measure and insist that the ordinance would be illegal if passed. The city, on the other hand, maintains that the right to reduce fares is a reserved one existing in favor of the city in the original grants made to individual lines which have since been consolidated. In case the ordinance is passed, it will probably be carried to the courts, and, as was the case in the gas fight of some years ago, when the rates of illuminating gas were reduced to 80 cents per thousand, the issue will probably be determined on the ground of the reasonableness of the ordinance and the rate of fare.

The Big Consolidated road, which is not interested in the present ordinance, has made offers of compromise on the ground that, while denying any right of the city to make such a change, they desire to adjust the matter amicably rather than incur the hostility of the public by a prolonged fight. As a concession, they have offered universal transfers over all the roads of the city and 5 per cent of

\* Communication of Frederic C. Howe, Esq.



their gross earnings, on condition that they receive certain extensions of their grants. At the present time the roads sell eleven tickets for fifty cents, and pave about fifteen feet of the roadway.

**Municipal Association.**—The Municipal Association, which is a body of business and professional men of the city, has been devoting itself of late to an investigation of the finances of the county and the county commissioners. A report of the secretary based upon a thorough examination shows the wildest extravagance in their expenditures; that money is expended for the advancement of personal and political ends, and that the county for years has been systematically defrauded by contractors and other interested persons. An examining committee of two thoroughly competent men has been appointed by the Common Pleas Court, and it is hoped that their report will bring about some change in existing conditions. The expenditures of the commissioners amount to hundreds of thousands of dollars annually and they are made without publicity, competitive bids or contracts.

The Municipal Association is also advancing the cause of civil service reform in the state. A bill has been drafted, and with the co-operation of other organizations such as the State Chamber of Commerce, the Board of Trade, etc., hopes to secure its passage by the legislature, which meets in January.

**Washington.**—*Charities.* In the Department of Public Charities important steps in the direction of progress have been taken. For some time the question of the advisability of continuing the granting of public moneys to private charities has been considered by Congress. An act was passed—to take effect the coming fiscal year—prohibiting the granting of public money to sectarian institutions. A congressional joint-committee is engaged at the present time in investigating the charities of the District. Recently a new Superintendent of Charities has been appointed who is especially trained in sociological and charitable work. The first changes proposed by him are contained in his estimates for the ensuing year—just submitted to the District Commissioners. The proposed change is in conformity with the law passed by Congress, and advocates the abandonment of the granting of public subsidies to private institutions, and the adoption of the plan of accomplishing the public work through public agencies, at all times under the control of public authority.

**California.**—The tendency toward central control of municipalities in the granting of franchises, is illustrated by a law recently passed by the Legislature of California. According to the provisions of the act, every franchise to telegraph or telephone companies, street

railroads, gas, water, electric power or light companies, must be sold at auction at a certain percentage of the gross receipts. The amount must not be less than three per cent. The law permits the local authorities to remit such payment during the first five years of operation. A singular omission of the act is the failure to specify the duration of the franchise. Local authorities are thus at liberty to grant a franchise for an indefinite period.

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FOREIGN CITIES.

**London.**—The committee appointed to investigate the charges against the "Works Department" of the London County Council, has published a report containing an exhaustive discussion of the relation of the municipal authorities to the execution of public works. The department officials were charged with having so arranged the accounts as to show a more favorable condition of certain portions of the work than was justified by the facts. This, it was claimed, had been done by the transference of items from one account to another. In the report the committee finds that these charges are substantially true; that a number of fictitious entries, amounting to about \$36,000, had been made, with a resulting falsification of the cost of certain public works, the apparent cost of some being decreased by amounts which were included in the cost of others. No direct misappropriation of the funds was discovered. While severely criticising these financial transactions, the committee strongly defends the policy of the council in extending the system of direct employment of labor. The investigation shows but little to discredit the system. With a few additional safeguards, the dangers at present involved can be, to a large extent, eliminated.

The establishment of the Works Department was the direct result of the new labor policy of the council inaugurated in 1889. The wages and hours of labor of the employes of contractors were prescribed by the council and inserted in the contracts for public work. This policy led to difficulties in securing bids. The council then resolved to establish an independent Department of Works which should undertake the work of repairs and also the construction of a certain portion of new public works. During the year 1892 a number of sewers were constructed by the department. It was found that although the "labor clauses" were maintained the cost was less than that of the lowest bidding contractor. Soon after the economy of the new method was proven, the construction of repair shops in different portions of the metropolitan area and the maintenance of a permanent force were authorized. The Works Department now

extended its operations to the construction of laborers' dwellings, hospitals, fire stations, etc. The results were uniformly favorable. Recently, suspicions of unwarranted financial operations were aroused. The opponents of direct execution of public works by the municipality led a violent attack against the policy of the council. The appointment of a committee of investigation and the report here mentioned followed. On the whole, it may be said that the report fully vindicates the policy of the council. The committee advocates the maintenance of the system, recommending certain changes in organization. A Works Board, composed of representatives from the nine important committees of the county council, is to be established, to which shall be referred propositions of individual committees desiring work to be done without the intervention of the contractor. Under the direction of this works board, a works manager is to carry out the plans referred to him by this board. The minority of the committee recommend the abolition of the whole system of direct municipal management, and advocate a strict adherence to the contract system.

**Toronto.**—Within recent years the city of Toronto has been attracting much attention through the adoption of this policy in connection with the highway department. The results of this work are stated in the following communication received from the street commissioner, Mr. John Jones. Speaking of the work accomplished under his administration of the department, Mr. Jones says:

"As to its practical operation I am aware of several objections advanced in some quarters against it. Firstly, it is contended that the shrewdness, enterprise and kindred qualities manifested by private firms and corporations in the conduct of their business is lacking to a greater or lesser degree in the performance and supervision of public works by officials acting on behalf of the citizens; in other words that there is a certain perfunctoriness displayed by the latter which is inimical to the highest success. Another objection is that there are too many opportunities afforded for official peculation in connection with positions involving large expenditure, and the disposal of wide patronage. A third contention is that men employed on public undertakings will not yield the same service as when employed by private firms.

"The first two having a certain relationship may be treated together. That they have some weight will not be denied; but that they are insuperable is being disproved every day in scores of municipalities, notably Glasgow and Birmingham, the former particularly. Honest, capable men are to be found in every community who would be glad to give their best services in the interests of their fellow-citizens if the continuity of their positions were assured, and they could rely on being allowed an absolutely free hand in the

discharge of their duties, and to stand or fall by their achievements. For my part I will undertake to perform any branch of our work quite as well, and more cheaply, than if done under private contract, providing the conditions are equal. The third objection I shall deal with later.

"I come now to speak of our experience in regard to the direct employment of day labor. Prior to about the year 1873, everything of a public nature with the exception of street cleaning and scavenging was done under the contract system. In that year a department was organized by the council under the name of the City Commissioner's Department, having charge of general street matters. That date marks the commencement of a movement towards extending public control, which is but another name for the employment of day labor, and it has proceeded steadily up to the present time. About ten years ago my own department was organized, all street matters then or subsequently being placed under it. On my appointment to the position of street commissioner I determined to maintain and extend the principle of direct control of all branches of work placed in my charge, as opportunity offered, and I think I may affirm in all modesty that my efforts have been to some extent successful. When I took charge of the services of street cleaning, scavenging and street watering, they had been brought completely under civic control, but the "hire" system generally prevailed, that is, a very considerable portion of the work was done by carts and teams hired from private parties. Even this was ahead of the contract system, but it had many drawbacks; for instance, it gave opportunity for wirepulling and log-rolling to obtain an extra share of the work, and carts and teams would be recommended by alderman and other influential people which were unfit for our purpose. Another drawback was the lack of continuity in the performance of the work, arising from the constant changing of the men, thus making it next to impossible to locate derelictions of duty. The corporation at that time owned a considerable number of wagons, sweepers, horses, etc.; but there was no provision for renewing or repairing same, everything being supplied by local firms and tradesmen. It will readily be understood what scrambling there was for patronage, resulting in high priced and grossly inferior work. These things I set myself to reform. At the present time we own over one hundred horses, fully equipped, which are boarded in three stables erected in various parts of the city. We own a full street sweeping, street watering and scavenging plant, all of which are manufactured at our shops. The "hire" system is nearly, not quite, abolished so far as these very important services are concerned. It must not be supposed, however, that all this was

achieved without opposition. Tradesmen, the laboring element, owners of carts, and a certain section of the aldermen, have bitterly attacked every change, the latter chiefly because of the pressure brought to bear upon them by those of their constituents who were annoyed to see a fruitful source of revenue cut off. The agitation to revert to the former system has still some life in it, but the citizens themselves may be trusted to prevent its success, since it has been plainly demonstrated that the present system is superior from every point of view.

"Regarding other branches of public work outside of the services just dealt with, comprising sidewalk, sewer and water-works construction, the first two only are controlled by this department, the latter two belonging to separate departments. All sidewalks are constructed under municipal control with the exception of those composed of a patent cement, known as "granolithic," which is controlled by a private firm. Walks of this character are laid wherever the property owners petition for same, the cost being borne by the persons whose properties are benefited.

"Roadways, generally speaking, are constructed under the contract system. Now and then we put down a pavement, but the opposition from the contracting element is too strong yet to allow of the day labor system making much headway. It may be asked why with the advantages of a partial system of day labor, such as I have above referred to, in plain view, there should be any difficulty in extending its operations? The answer is simply that the department is not allowed to compete on even terms with private firms. The latter are at liberty to employ the best men obtainable. We are not allowed to do so. Times are unfortunately a little bad with us at present, and as a result there is an exceptionable number of unemployed of all trades, in addition to a very large contingent of common laborers, some of them old and infirm. As many of the latter have never done anything but corporation work an opening has to be found for them, otherwise they would starve. The employment of these men would not perhaps be of very great disadvantage if the rate of wages was graded according to their strength and capacity. But it is not permitted us to make any such distinction. A by-law of the council, passed some years ago, provides a minimum rate of fifteen cents per hour for all corporation employes, and although the idea of its promoters was in the main good, and in some respects has been of advantage to the men, in others it has worked the opposite, particularly in the case of the older men, contractors preferring younger men, who are always obtainable. The by-law referred to applies equally to city work done under contract.

## SOCIOLOGICAL NOTES.

**Increase of Insanity in London.**—The Asylums Committee of the County Council in its last annual report records the number of imbeciles of all classes on the first of last January as 19,954, or an increase of about 700 compared with 1896, and 754 compared with 1895. London has a far larger proportion of lunatics compared with the total number in England and Wales than the relative proportion of population in the two areas would warrant. The publication entitled *London*, for September 16, 1897, in an article on "Lunacy in London," reviews this report at some length and produces a diagram which gives a very vivid picture of the increase of insanity, of insane paupers, of paupers in general as compared with the total population of London for the several years from 1889 to 1896 inclusive. It states that it is generally amongst the poorest class that the greatest percentage of insanity is found. A table showing the occupations of 1807 patients admitted last year to the asylums, indicates that there were 285 laborers, 137 with no occupations, 83 ill-paid clerks, 43 carpenters, 33 boot and shoe makers, 44 tailors, 55 printers, and 43 porters. Of the women admitted, 392 were classed as housewives, 259 domestic servants, 86 charwomen, 39 laundresses, 43 dressmakers, 44 tailoresses. There was not a uniform classification of the causes as given by the medical officers of the different asylums, but a table is given containing a list of the chief causes as follows: 740 hereditary influences, direct or collateral; 717 previous attacks; 611 drink; 301 old age and senility; 269 adverse circumstances, business anxieties, worry, over-work, over-exertion, mental anxiety; 134 domestic troubles, including loss of relatives; 133 change of life; 49 privation and starvation.

It is also stated that these figures probably contain some duplications but are sufficiently indicative of the general causes operating in London.

**Free Medical Aid in Dispensaries.**\*—It is a much mooted question among members of the medical profession as to how far it is wise to proffer free medical aid to the public. The competition for practice material among the different medical schools and the younger members of the medical profession generally, has led to a rapid growth of free dispensaries in all our large cities. These are also partially supported by the benevolent public, which contributes because it

\* The information in this note has been obtained from the proof sheets of Dr. Kase's paper, which the author very kindly loaned for the purpose at the Editor's request.



regards them as a species of wise charity. The medical profession has also been always most willing to give its services for a similar reason. In an excellent article by Mr. Savage, published in the volume on Hospitals of the report of the International Congress of Charities and Philanthropy, held in Chicago in 1893, there is a review of the growth of the dispensary system in this country, and of some of the attempts to check its abuse, notably those in New York City.

One of the latest studies of the question and one of considerable value because of the method pursued in the investigation, is contained in a paper submitted by Dr. Edmund H. Kase, of Philadelphia, at a recent gathering of homœopaths at Scranton, Pa. The title of Dr. Kase's paper, which will be published in the proceedings of the society, and also, doubtless, in one of the medical journals, is "Dispensary Abuse: Result of an Investigation of Over One Thousand Consecutive Cases." As a matter of fact, Dr. Kase took 1058 consecutive cases of persons who applied for treatment at the Hahnemann Hospital Dispensary, Philadelphia, between June 7 and July 8, 1897. Dr. Kase questioned and cross-examined each person, and in only three cases failed to get full information of a satisfactory kind. The original record of this investigation is on file at the hospital, and is accessible to the medical profession and others who may show good reason for studying this material.

The total number of cases was divided into eighteen classes in tabulating the returns. The first class includes "patients very poor, evident pauper class, children and elderly people who with difficulty are able to find their daily bread and shelter, includes those out of work most of the time during the past year."

The second class.—Patients who have no one to support but themselves and whose aggregate cash receipts during the past year have averaged less than \$8.00 per week.

Class three.—Same as class two, but with average earnings from \$8.00 up to and including those with \$12.00 per week.

Class four.—Same as class two and three, but with earnings averaging over \$12.00 per week and including those receiving as high as \$15.00 per week.

Class five.—Ditto, with earnings over \$15.00 per week.

Class six.—Ditto, with earnings averaging from \$3.00 to \$5.00 per week, including board.

Class seven.—Ditto, with more than \$5.00 per week, including board.

Class eight.—Patients from families with two or more to support, in which the aggregate cash receipts for the past year averaged \$10.00 or less per week.

Class nine.—Same as class eight, with average earnings of more than \$10.00 and less than \$12.00 per week.

Class ten.—Same as classes eight and nine, with average earnings of \$12.00 per week and upwards, including those as high as \$15.00 per week.

Class eleven.—Ditto, with over \$15.00 per week.

Class twelve.—Patients from families with three to support, in which the aggregate cash receipts for the past year have averaged \$12.00 per week and upwards, including those with \$15.00 per week.

Class thirteen.—Ditto, with average earnings over \$15.00.

Class fourteen.—Patients from families of four to seven to support, in which the aggregate cash receipts for the past year have averaged \$12.00 per week and upwards, including those with \$15.00 per week.

Class fifteen.—Ditto, with average earnings of more than \$15.00 and as high as \$18.00.

Class sixteen.—Ditto, with average earnings over \$18.00.

Class seventeen.—Patients from families of seven to twelve to support, in which the aggregate cash receipts for the past year have averaged \$12.00 per week and upwards as high as \$18.00.

Class eighteen.—Ditto, with average earnings over \$18.00 per week.

The total number of cases distributed among these eighteen classes gave the following figures to each class respectively from one to eighteen: 86, 172, 42, 4, 2, 41, 5, 543, 28, 25, 7, 11, 1, 64, 12, 6, 3.

It would seem from this table that over half the total number of cases were patients with families of two or more to support, in which the aggregate cash receipts for the past year have averaged \$10.00 or less per week. Of the total number of cases, 258 belonged in the medical department of the dispensary; 227 in the surgical; 116 in the eye department, and the balance scattered through ten other departments. This would not seem to lend support to the theory which has been advanced, that the great majority of cases treated in the free dispensaries are those of persons with an abnormal craving for stimulants or medicines of any kind, who become habitués of the medical dispensaries. Many of these cases which Dr. Kase discusses individually are persons owning property and in apparent comfortable circumstances.

In the general conclusions of his paper, however, Dr. Kase is inclined to blame the medical profession for such abuses as exist rather than the public itself. He says in one place: "Without fear of contradiction, however, I feel safe in saying that the great majority of physicians as well as laymen would hardly claim that all of the above 1058 people were deserving of free medical service; on the contrary all will agree that there are some among this list who should not be

allowed to partake of dispensary aid, being totally undeserving of such charity, and some means, therefore, should speedily be applied to correct this abuse, however small it may be, which tends to a wrong diversion of funds and is an open bid for pauperism and dependents."

Dr. Kase brings out a hitherto but little noticed reason why many well-to-do persons will go to the dispensary for aid. They are often people who contribute to the support of dispensaries and feel, therefore, that they have a claim as though they were members of a society distributing medical relief. This is especially true in some industrial establishments where firms contribute to the expense of providing a free dispensary with the distinct understanding that their employes shall have free treatment at all times. Dr. Kase admits that in the dispensary where he examined his cases that this fact accounts for some of the better-to-do cases which appear on the records. The accident department of the hospitals also act as feeders to the dispensary and bring in a class of persons who would never think of going to a dispensary on their own account, but who often remain patients of the dispensary until permanently cured. Dr. Kase reaches the conclusion that the real abuse of the dispensary is less than supposed, and that of this real abuse fully 90 per cent is the fault of physicians themselves who indirectly or directly bring or send persons to the dispensary who are able, and in most cases would be willing, to pay a fair compensation for medical advice and attendance.

**Factory Inspection in the United States.**—In *Bulletin* No. 12 of the United States Department of Labor for September, 1897, Mr. W. F. Willoughby has an article on "The Inspection of Factories and Workshops in the United States," which is in substance the report presented by the department to the recent International Congress held at Brussels.\*

The article, in addition to stating the meaning of factory inspection as applied in the United States, reviews briefly the laws in the several states and gives the following summary of the history of such inspection throughout the United States:

"The history of the development of the official inspection of factories and workshops in the United States is like that of the history of all social legislation. One state has led the way by the enactment of tentative measures, which it has afterward developed as dictated by experience. Other states have profited by the example and have taken similar steps. The moral influence of the action of states upon each other in the United States is great. A movement at first grows slowly, but as state after state adopts similar measures the pressure

\* *Congrès International des Accidents du Travail et des Assurances sociales*, at Brussels, Belgium, July, 1897.

upon others to do likewise becomes stronger, and the movement tends to advance at a constantly increasing rate.

"In the field of the inspection of factories we are now in the midst of such a movement. Factory inspection in the United States is of comparatively recent development. Though Massachusetts, the first state to take steps in this direction, enacted its first law providing for the inspection of factories in 1877, it was not until six years later, or in 1883, that its example was followed by another state, New Jersey. Wisconsin in the same year provided for inspection through its bureau of labor. Ohio followed in the succeeding year, 1884. The movement, however, once fairly started, has spread with increasing rapidity. In 1886 New York provided for factory inspection. In 1887 Connecticut, Minnesota and Maine did likewise. These were followed by Pennsylvania in 1889, Missouri and Tennessee in 1891, Illinois and Michigan in 1893, and Rhode Island in 1894. There are, therefore, at the present time, fourteen states that have made some provision for factory inspection.

"Fourteen states out of forty-five is, of course, a small proportion. As has been stated, however, it is not a completed movement that is being studied. We are rather in the position of one who in the midst of action stops to look back and see what has been accomplished in order better to determine his course for the future.

"In considering the progress that has been made, moreover, a comparison should be made not with the total number of states, but rather with the states in which the manufacturing industry is largely developed. It will thus be seen that of the New England and Middle States, all of which are manufacturing states, the smaller states alone—New Hampshire, Vermont, Delaware and Maryland—have no inspection. In the Middle Western States, Ohio, Illinois, Michigan, Missouri, Minnesota and Wisconsin have inspection officers. The far Western and Southern States, if we except the slight measure of inspection in Tennessee, are absolutely unrepresented. In these states, however, the manufacturing interests are but little developed.

"Finally, it is important to recognize that the growth of factory inspection lies not only in the creation of new departments in different states, but in the enlargement of the powers and the broadening of the scope of the work of inspection services after they have once been initiated. The principal development of factory inspection is found in the development of each particular bureau.

"An appreciation of this development, therefore, can only be had by studying the development of factory inspection in each state in which action has been taken, after which the general features of the movement can be summarized."

**The New Tenement House Laws in New York City.**—The results thus far from the new laws put upon the statute books upon the recommendation of the Tenement House Commission of 1894, have been stated briefly in one of the pamphlets of the Citizens' Union, which was published for campaign purposes a few months ago. We quote from it as follows:

"All civilized cities pay great attention to the question of the housing of the masses of the population. In New York it is particularly desirable that the authorities should not neglect this question, for our city is the most crowded of all modern cities. So far as is known, plague-ridden Bombay is the only great city in the world which is anything like as crowded as New York. There is only one city district in all Europe, a part of Prague in Bohemia, which is even half as crowded as parts of New York, where we sometimes see in the neighborhood of 1000 inhabitants to the acre.

"The present city administration found itself charged, from the very start, with the duty of passing upon and enforcing the tenement house laws put on the statute books at the suggestion of the Tenement House Commission of 1894. In New York where more than one-half (about eight-fifteenths) of the whole population lives in tenements, strictly speaking, leaving the tenants of the higher class flats out of the count, this question naturally takes first rank. Mayor Strong approved the new laws promptly, and the machinery for their enforcement was set in motion with as little delay as possible. The change that has been wrought in the short space of two years is very great. It is not within the power of man to remodel the whole body of New York's 40,000 tenements in two or in twenty years; but a vast deal has been done to better the condition of those who live in them. The worst houses have been seized and destroyed, more light and air have been secured to those hereafter to be built, and some of the most serious evils besetting life in the tenements which remain have been abolished.

"The worst of these evils, the risk of midnight fires, has been met, so far as that was possible by action of the authorities, through the banishment of dangerous trades from tenement houses. The cruller bakery was the most hazardous as well as the commonest of these trades. The bakery was always in the basement, and the fat in which the crullers were cooked was boiled in the small hours of the morning when the tenants upstairs were asleep. An accident, the upsetting of a pan of fat on the stove, was the signal for a fire that swept through the house with uncontrollable fury, carrying panic and death to the sleepers. The 'cruller fire' was one of the constantly recurring horrors of our city's life. Scores of lives have been sacrificed to the

official neglect that allowed perpetual warning to go unheeded. Within the last year this source of peril has been entirely removed. The fat-boiling bakeries have been driven out of the tenement houses. The Health Department brought 107 suits and obtained 41 judgments for violation of the new law which requires certain safeguards against fire. That broke up the business; 119 bakeries gave the cruller up; 7 made their bakeries fireproof under the direction of the Fire Department, and were licensed to carry on their no longer dangerous trade. Paint and oil stores, feed stores and other depots of inflammable wares in tenement houses have been put under the control of the Fire Department and the Department of Buildings. Since the law was enforced, there has not been an instance of loss of life through neglect of its provisions.

"No tenement has been built in New York in the past two years that has not had (except on corner lots) one-fourth of the lot upon which it stands left open to the light and air. The Tenement House Commission measured a whole block on the east side, typical of the worst tenement traditions, where the interior air-space was only one-fourteenth of the whole area. Ninety-three per cent of the ground was covered with brick and mortar. Under the custom of the Building Department, 78 per cent was the limit for new buildings. Custom is no longer allowed to fix the limit. It is now, under the new law and the action of the Building Department, 75 per cent. The tenant has gained three feet in a hundred. That abomination, the dark bedroom, is gone for good. With 25 per cent of the lot left open, every room can have—must have—a window opening on the outer air. In all tenements built to-day provision is made, by means of fireproof stairs and doors, for preventing fires that break out in the cellar or on the first floor, from reaching the upper part of the building before the tenants have had time to escape. The present Building Department carefully enforces the new laws.

"When a year ago the sanitary police made a census of the tenements, they counted 14,000 that had no light in the hallways at night. The owners were ordered to comply with the new tenement-house law, which requires that such halls shall be lighted not only at night, but by day as well, if no outer light enters. A reinspection showed that two-thirds of the landlords had obeyed the order. A third survey, made last spring, found only 600 halls unlighted below Fourteenth street. Steady pressure is being exerted to compel the lighting of dark halls by day also. The Board of Health has gone about the enforcement of these laws with a wise conservatism that has been more than justified by the results, holding that it is to the largest extent a 'campaign of education' in which it is engaged. It is safe to-



predict that in a not very distant day the dark tenement hall will be, with the 'cruller fire,' a thing of a bad past.

"The worst of the old rookeries are gone. This is the signal success of the year. The new tenement house law permits the seizure and condemnation of tenements absolutely unfit to live in, upon payment to their owners of a nominal sum. A year ago, upon application of the Good Government Clubs, sixteen rear tenements that were of the most vicious type, were seized, and the tenants ordered out. Other buildings were condemned in quick succession, the death registry serving as the guide of the sanitary officials. The landlords had resort to the courts, but were beaten in a series of decisions, which materially strengthened the Health Department's position. So far ninety-three tenements have been seized—rear buildings, all of them, with one or two exceptions. Thirty have been already destroyed, the city paying the owners from \$50 to \$200 for each; thirteen have been remodeled under direction of the department. The rest have been vacated under the action of the board. The death-rate has come down from 26.26 in the first half of 1887 to 19.60—the lowest in the records of the department—in the corresponding half of 1897, which means a saving of 6629 lives during the six months, had the death-rate of ten years ago been maintained with the population of to-day; or 13,258 for the whole year, supposing the record of the six months to be maintained throughout the year. Other factors, such as the effective cleaning of streets, the better supervision of the milk and food supply, the opening of new parks, and better sanitation every way, enter into this showing; that the demolition of the old rookeries has helped also to effect this good result no one can doubt who recalls the Tenement House Commission's denunciation of them as 'veritable slaughter-houses.' 'The legislation,' said its report, 'which will most favorably affect the death-rate of New York, is such as will do away with the rear tenements, and root out every old, ramshackle, disease-breeding tenement house in the city.'

"Houses front and rear on same lot of which the rear houses were condemned and vacated during 1896:

Total population . . . . .	3,045
Total deaths, 1891-95 inclusive . . . . .	958
Annual average of deaths . . . . .	191.6
Average annual death-rate for five years of all these houses (87 street numbers) . . . . .	62.9
Normal death-rate of city during same five-year period . . . . .	24.63

"For every one who dies there are counted twenty-eight who are sick, and sickness to the wage-worker means loss of pay in addition to pain and trouble.

"It is not only necessary to have good laws, but to have these laws intelligently and promptly enforced. The present administration has done well for all the inhabitants of the city in enforcing the new health laws, and the new laws for the better housing of the people."

**Present System of Public Charity in Massachusetts.**—A determined but hitherto ineffectual effort to reform the system of public charity in Massachusetts has been made on the part of the leading workers in Boston. A commission was recently appointed to investigate the charitable and reformatory interests and institutions of the commonwealth. The commission recommended some radical changes, namely, that a department for children be created to take charge of the dependent and neglected children that are wards of the commonwealth, the department to be under the supervision of a State Board of Charities. Secondly, that a State Board of Insanity be created, to supervise the care of the insane within the commonwealth. Third, that a State Board of Charities be created to supervise all public charities within the commonwealth, and this last board be the successor to all the powers and duties of the present Board of Lunacy and Charity, except the supervision of the insane and care of children. In addition to these recommendations, it is also proposed that the state assume the control and the expense of all the pauper insane, and that the settlement laws be simplified and so modified as to make cities and towns less often liable for the support of non-resident paupers than at present.

The recommendations of the commission are still a matter of public discussion. The sketch which the commission made of the present system and of its results, is of interest to all students of public charities. The report states that public charity in Massachusetts is administered by the state and by the cities and towns.

I. City and town charity consists chiefly in the support of people in almshouses, in giving relief to people in their own homes, and in providing temporary shelter for tramps.

*System of Administration.*—The almshouses are managed and the relief given by the overseers of the poor of each city and town (and by the Institutions Commissioner of the city of Boston). The tramps are taken charge of sometimes by the overseers of the poor, sometimes by the police.

*Statistics.*—There are 352 cities and towns, of which 207 have almshouses of their own, 2 have an almshouse in common, and one almshouse is used by 7 towns. The remainder (136) have no almshouses. Some cities and towns have tramp-houses or tramp-rooms, some receive tramps in the almshouse, some in the police stations, and some in a hotel.

On March 31, 1896, the cities and towns were supporting 4972 persons in almshouses; while during the year ending September 30, 1896, they also supported or relieved about 53,000 different persons outside of almshouses—chiefly in their own homes. The average number of tramps lodged at night during that year was 622.7.

There is, besides, the Boston Lunatic Hospital, governed by the Institutions Commissioner of the city of Boston, and containing on September 30, 1896, 182 patients.

II. State charity consists chiefly in the support of people in large institutions.

There are seven state lunatic hospitals and asylums, one hospital for dipsomaniacs, one hospital for epileptics, and two institutions for the feeble-minded (making eleven institutions in all for the mentally defective). There are, besides, the Lyman School for Boys and the State Industrial School for Girls, the State Almshouse for Sane Paupers and some of the chronic insane, and the State Farm, in which paupers, criminals, sane and insane, are received.

*System of Administration.*—Each of these institutions is governed by a board of trustees, except that the Worcester Lunatic Hospital and the Worcester Insane Asylum are governed by the same board, and the two reform schools are governed by one board, as are also the State Almshouse and the State Farm. Thus there are a total of fifteen state institutions, governed by twelve boards of trustees.

*Statistics.*—The above-named state institutions contained on September 30, 1896:

Insane persons . . . . .	5,536
Others mentally defective . . . . .	530
Sane paupers . . . . .	1,455
Reform school children . . . . .	397
	<hr/>
	7,918
Besides the children in the reform schools, there are in the custody of the schools, but placed out in private families on trial, about . . . . .	500
	<hr/>
Adding these makes a total, in charge of state institutions, of . . . . .	8,418

Two exceptions: Besides carrying on the above-named institutions, the state has also charge of insane persons boarded in families (of whom there were 129 on September 30, 1896), and of the state children.

The latter are dependent and neglected children and the younger and more tractable of the juvenile offenders. They usually number about 1650. Some of them are placed for a short time in a temporary

home, but the great majority are either boarded or placed without payment of board in private families throughout Massachusetts and in neighboring states.

These two classes of state wards are an exception to the general rule of placing executive control in the hands of special boards of trustees, being both in the control and care of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity.

III. *Supervision*.—All the above-named state institutions, the city and town almshouses, the Boston Lunatic Hospital, the McLean Hospital (a private institution) and the thirteen private insane asylums, are subject to visitation, inspection and report on the part of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity. It is also the duty of this board to advise the legislature in regard to appropriations for the state institutions, and to make suggestions in regard to them and concerning the charitable and reformatory interests of the commonwealth; to decide questions arising (*e. g.*, between the various executive boards, state and local, and between Massachusetts and other states and counties) as to the legal obligation and proper place of support, and in some cases to carry out such decisions.

The care of the boarded-out insane and that of the state children, being in the hands of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity itself, are not subject to supervision.

IV. In some cases the relief administered by cities and towns is paid for by the state, and *vice versa*.

Extent of the above system. The whole number of persons dealt with during the year ending September 30, 1896, by the public charities of Massachusetts, as above described, was about 88,000.

This total was composed as follows:

I. Insane in public care:	
Insane in state institutions (liv, 51, 53) *	7,689
Insane in Boston Insane Hospital (79, 80) . . . . .	673
Insane in city and town almshouses (approximate) (xl) . . . . .	1,000†
The boarded-out insane (in control of State Board) (91) . . . . .	149
Total insane in public care . . . . .	9,511
II. Persons other than the insane in care of state:	
1. Supported in state institutions (including dipsomaniacs, feeble-minded, epileptics, sane paupers, tramps, other criminals and children in reform schools) (liv) . . . . .	7,939
2. Children placed out from the reform schools (23) . . . . .	897
3. Children in care of State Board (23, 18) . . . . .	2,136
Total of Class II . . . . .	10,963

\* References are to pages of the 1896 "Report of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity."

† Probably an underestimate. The number March 31, 1896, was 829 (xl).

III. Persons other than the insane helped by cities and towns:	
1. Supported in city and town almshouses (exclusive of the insane) (xxx) . . . . .	7,878
2. Tramps lodged by cities and towns (estimated)* (xxx) . . . . .	1,000
3. Persons supported and relieved by cities and towns outside of almshouses, chiefly in their homes (approximate) (viii, first series) . . . . .	53,000
Total of Class III . . . . .	63,878
IV. Others dealt with:	
Insane in fourteen private hospitals and asylums under supervision of State Board of Lunacy and Charity . . . . .	424
Boarding-houses for infants, inspected by State Board: Infants reported on during the year . . . . .	1,235
Trials of juvenile offenders and neglected children attended by agents of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity (the duty of the board's agent being to carefully investigate each case before trial) . . . . .	2,984
	4,643
Total, allowing for duplications not already allowed for in above figures, about . . . . .	88,000

This number, 88,000, is about  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent of the entire population of Massachusetts, or a fraction more than an average of one person in every six families in the state, allowing five persons to the family.

The cost of support and relief for the year ending September 30, 1896, was . . . . .	
Salaries and traveling and office expenses of State Board of Lunacy and Charity . . . . .	\$2,874,234 (p. viii, first series)
	89,653 (p. 192)
Total cost of relieving pauperism, exclusive of interest on plant . . . . .	\$2,963,887

*Main features of the above system.*—The above is a very brief, and therefore imperfect, statement of the system of administration, and of the extent, of our public charities. The main features of this system, as has been seen, are:

I. A large number of executive boards, each devoted to the care or relief of a given group of dependents.

II. A board having supervision over the work of the executive boards and over the system of public charity as a whole.

III. Special provision by the state for classes of dependents requiring special treatment; namely, for the insane, the various other classes of mentally defective (feeble-minded, epileptics and dipsomaniacs), and for juvenile offenders.

\* There were 227,465 acts of vagrancy reported—a daily average of 622.7 (xxx).

BOOKS RECEIVED FROM JULY 15 TO SEPTEMBER 25, 1897.

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ABBREVIATIONS.—In the Index the following abbreviations have been used: *pap.*, principal paper by the person named; *b.*, review of book of which the person named is the author; *p. n.*, personal note on the person named; *r.*, review by the person named.

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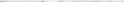
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